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VOL. LVI—NO. 1437.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 5, 1893.

The Week.

MR. CLEVELAND makes an important addition to his long list of public services in his frank and dignified utterance against the candidacy of Edward Murphy for the Senate. He says, with characteristic courage, what everybody knows to be the simple truth in the matter. No advocate of Mr. Murphy has been able to give any reason for sending him to the Senate other than that he is the "choice of the organization." How he comes to be that choice is not dwelt upon, but everybody familiar with Machine political methods knows that Mr. Murphy himself brought it about by going down into the primaries which nominated candidates for the Legislature and "fixing the thing" there long before the people had given the subject any thought. From that moment to the present time the people have had no voice in the selection, neither have Mr. Murphy's qualifications for the position played any part in it. He simply decided that he would like to have the "place," and he set his machine in motion to secure it for himself. There was only one contingency in which Mr. Murphy would have been in any sense a fit candidate for the Senate. Had Mr. Hill been nominated and elected President, and had the Government of the United States been thus turned over to the spoils-men for their private advantage, then Mr. Murphy, as distributor of patronage for New York State, would have been an eminently suitable person to sit in the Senate as the New York representative and the exponent of the President's policy.

The kind of Senator that New York State needs at this time is well defined by Mr. Cleveland:

"It must not be forgotten, however, that the party has a very hard task to perform if we expect to keep the word that we have passed to the people of the country. They have given us a phenomenal majority—one showing that they expect us to do much. In doing this, a great deal depends upon the State of New York and its great metropolis. The interests of the State and of the party demand, it seems to me, the selection of a Senator who can not only defend the principles of our party, but who can originate and promote policies that may be presented for consideration in the Senate. In order to insure this, the Senator from New York should be a man not only experienced in public affairs, but who has a clear conception of the vital issues with which he must deal during the next few years."

There is no lack of Democrats of that type in the State.

Gov. Flower, we judge, is not quite easy in his mind touching the appointment of Maynard to be a judge of the Court of Appeals. He publishes eight

letters which he has received from different parts of the State commending Maynard as an honest man and shining light in the legal profession. The writers of these letters are mostly persons unknown to fame. They are all quite sure that the Bar Association of New York is unqualified to pass judgment upon Mr. Maynard, and they go much beyond Mr. Flower himself in their endorsement of Maynard. Mr. Flower, it will be recalled, said that since Maynard had been on the bench he had been a very proper man. These eight endorsers consider him a proper man before as well as after he became a member of the highest judicial tribunal. Upon this point Gov. Flower has not yet committed himself. If the Democratic Machine wishes to know what the people of New York really think of Maynard, it can find out by nominating him in the regular way for the office he now holds. An opportunity will be presented in the coming autumn. Gov. Flower, too, if he should happen to be nominated again for an elective office, will find out how many people have "sized him up" by his action in the Maynard case.

One of these letters, as might be expected—and it is the longest of all—comes from Judge Maynard's pastor, and closely resembles all similar pastoral letters, by totally evading the real issue. Judge Maynard has been convicted on the clearest evidence—documentary mostly—of having committed a specific offence against the law and against the peace and dignity of the good people of the State, which offence proves his unfitness as to character for a judicial office. Moreover, the charge has been made and driven home by a body of lawyers such as, for character and learning, we have never had on any bench in this State. Now mark how Pastor Richards meets this:

"I wish to state to your Excellency that I have known Judge J. H. Maynard during the past twenty-five years, and most of the time most intimately, that he is my neighbor; that he is a member of the Presbyterian Church of Stamford of which I have the honor to be the pastor, and that he is universally respected and esteemed as a man, and unquestioned as to his legal ability in the community where he is most intimately known. While no one more than myself would deprecate the placing of a man in high office, or keeping him there, who was morally unfit for the office, or who was guilty in any way of tampering with the sacred rights of the people as voters, I do not for a moment believe that Judge Maynard would wilfully, or maliciously, or even for partisan purposes, or for the hope of emolument or office, do anything or connive at anything that would deprive any of the citizens of his State of their sacred political right to vote and to have their votes fairly counted. He may have made a mistake in the matter of the Dutchess County returns (of this I am not competent to judge), but that he knowingly made a mistake or connived at any such crime as the Bar Association intimate, I have the utmost confidence in saying is impossible for a man such as I believe Judge Maynard to be."

In other words, he admits, with pastoral

simplicity, that he knows nothing of the matter in hand, and would not be "a competent judge" of it even if the facts were before him, but nevertheless declares as a pastor, "with the utmost confidence," that it was "impossible" that Judge Maynard could have committed the offence which nine of the most eminent men of the New York bar (nearly all belonging to his own party) say, after full examination, that he did commit, and—this is enough to make one laugh out in meeting—*Judge Maynard has never denied*. This pastor, too, it must be remembered, is a professional moralist, and is supposed to be competent to direct the consciences of a large body of people in the conduct of life.

That "scholar in politics," Henry Cabot Lodge, is introducing into Massachusetts the methods with which the Hill Machine has made New Yorkers familiar. Having induced the Republican party to disregard all its traditions and adopt the caucus system for the selection of a United States Senator, he has now followed "Dave" Hill's example of last year by calling a "snap" caucus to meet on the day the Legislature assembles, instead of waiting until the time for electing a Senator a fortnight later, according to the invariable custom in States which hold such caucuses. Lodge's motive now is exactly the same as Hill's was last February—a fear of submitting his case to the deliberate judgment of the public, and a resolution to seize by force what he fears would not be awarded him voluntarily. Of course, Lodge will succeed, as Hill succeeded last February, but when he resorts to such disreputable methods, he writes himself down in the same class to which Hill belongs. There are public men in Massachusetts who would prefer private life to a Senatorship won at such cost.

The controversy over the Wyoming Legislature has been finally decided in favor of the Democrats. Moreover, the decision is one of which the Republicans cannot complain, since it is made by the Supreme Court of the State, which is composed of members of their party. There seems to be no question that this is a just settlement of the dispute. The question turned upon the result in one precinct of a county electing two members, the returns from which were alleged to contain some technical errors. If this precinct were thrown out, the Republicans would secure control of the Legislature; if its votes were counted, the Democrats would be in the majority. The Republican Supreme Court rightly holds that, as the will of the voters is plain, technical irregularities should not be allowed to de-

feat that will. It thus appears that the result of the Wyoming election was the choice of a Legislature Democratic by 25 to 24, a Democratic Governor by a majority of 1,781, and a Democratic Congressman by a majority of 461, while there was a plurality of 953 for Harrison. This shows a great deal of independent voting, the credit for which must be divided between the men and women, as the defeat of the Republican candidate for Governor is ascribed directly to the attitude of the latter. The Democrats are claiming that the final settlement reached insures their control of the State for many years to come, but it would be foolish for any party to suppose that it has a mortgage upon a commonwealth whose voters on the same day declare for a Republican President and a Democratic Governor and Legislature.

The Wyoming settlement assures the Democrats the gain of three seats in the Senate, the other two being from New York and Wisconsin. One more would give them just half of the 88 members, and assure their control of the upper branch of Congress, by the casting vote of Vice-President Stevenson, against the combined vote of the Republicans and Populists. There are three Legislatures any one of which seems likely to elect a Democratic Senator—in California, Montana, and Kansas—and it hardly seems possible that the party can fail to secure at least one. In any event, the Republicans cannot possibly obtain a majority except by the help of the Populists, and there is not one of that party who is likely to help them out. Indeed, there is one of their own number whom they can no longer count upon, as Mr. Stewart of Nevada, who has hitherto been a Republican, opposed that party in the recent canvass, and will be returned as the representative of the Populists. It is consequently certain that the Republicans cannot prevent the carrying through Congress of any Democratic measure; which is as it should be.

The *Tribune* argues that Mr. Cleveland cannot reverse President Harrison's proclamation putting extra taxes on imports from Venezuela, Colombia, and Hayti, because the act of Congress is "mandatory," and "under the Reciprocity Amendment he will be compelled to close the free market here as long as the conditions of equitable reciprocal trade are withheld." But who is to determine those "conditions"? The law says the President. It refers the whole matter to him, and he shall "deem" what is reciprocally unequal. Therefore, if Mr. Cleveland's judgment in the matter shall be the opposite of President Harrison's, it will be his duty to recall the latter's proclamation, and that precisely because the act is "mandatory." While on this subject, we should like the *Tribune's* opinion on Harrison's

course in dealing with Argentine trade. He informed the Argentine Government that he "deemed" their tariff "reciprocally unequal," and said that if no changes were made in it in our favor, he would proclaim a tax on their exports to our country. Then why did he not do it? Was not the act "mandatory" in that case as well as the others?

The financial eccentricities of the Hon. Charles Foster are so numerous that a new one scarcely challenges attention. Yet when the Secretary of the Treasury commends the present Silver Law because, as he says, our purchases of silver have added \$120,000,000 to the currency of the country, and then asks how the banks could have got on without that currency, we thank heaven that his stay in office is short. What would have happened, indeed? Why, we should have had all the gold we wanted, because gold value will always bring gold, strange as that may seem to Mr. Foster. Then if the banks had wanted this in the form of paper, they could have had it by asking the Treasury for gold certificates. This is the answer to Mr. Charles Foster's innocent query. After giving his nugget of wisdom to the newspapers, Mr. Foster said that he intended to make his home in Fostoria, O., after his retirement, although he had been offered a lucrative salary by "a number of concerns," on condition that he would lend his name to them. We can understand this if he was only to lend his name, but not if he was to lend his ideas also.

The Quarantine Bill which has been agreed upon by the sub-committee of the House Committee on Commerce is so obviously inadequate that we do not believe it will be accepted as satisfactory by the full Committee. It provides for a mixture of national and State quarantine, under the supervision of the Treasury Department, which would be certain to lead to conflict and failure in practice. It decrees that "wherever State quarantine regulations exist, the Hospital Service of the Revenue Marine, under the direction of the Treasury Department, shall have the power to enforce the laws and regulations of the different States"; and that "where there are no State quarantine regulations" the Treasury Department, acting through the Hospital Service, shall establish them in case of necessity. This simply perpetuates existing State quarantine establishments and puts over them the Secretary of the Treasury as a supervising officer. The first and inevitable effect of this arrangement would be to precipitate a conflict between the State and national authorities as soon as an emergency arose. Instead of having the wisest and promptest action possible, we should have a "row," like that of last autumn in the lower bay, between the local Health Officer and the medical

authorities of the Government service, in which the health and comfort of incoming travellers of all kinds would be sacrificed. Then, too, we should not command at all ports a uniform service, in charge of the highest expert ability, and all under control of an expert head, with complete authority and undivided responsibility. Any State is at liberty under the bill to establish its own regulations, and, in case of failure to enforce these to the satisfaction of the Treasury Department, the President may detail officers for the purpose of enforcing them. The President is also given power to suspend immigration indefinitely whenever he may think the public health requires it.

The sentiment in favor of stopping immigration diminishes steadily as one leaves the Atlantic Coast and crosses the continent. By the time he reaches the Mississippi Valley he is quite as likely as not to find the preponderance of expression against any severe measure of restriction. For example, we find in the *Milwaukee Journal* an earnest protest against Senator Chandler's proposition for the suspension of all immigration during 1893. "We need and want," says the *Journal*, "all the good citizens that Europe can send us. There is room for millions more of them without crowding. To close our ports against them would be contrary to public policy. It would deprive this country of the element of population which we absolutely need, and it would be unjust to those people of the Old World who desire to better their condition by coming here, and who would become intelligent, prosperous, and valuable citizens." In the same vein is an article in the *Kansas City Times* which speaks of the prohibitive scheme as "a growing menace to Western development." The *Times* says further: "The great, solemn fact for the West is, that its growth has been a result of immigration. We need not stop there. The progress of the whole United States has had many causes in conjunctive operation, but the fulcrum of every single cause has been the labor of immigrants. The West needs immigrants. It needs thorough organization for the transportation and settlement of new colonies more than it needs a crusade against immigration." The *New York Press* last week quoted Senator Hansbrough of North Dakota as expressing similar views: "He thinks the suspension of immigration would hurt the West and Northwest, which afford a wide field for the use of Germans and Scandinavians." As the *Milwaukee Journal* and *Kansas City Times* are Democratic, while Senator Hansbrough is a Republican, it will be seen that these views do not express the sentiments of one party only.

Michigan is to have a constitutional convention, and under circumstances so extraordinary that the decision seems al-

most farcical. The present Constitution was adopted in 1850, and contains a provision that propositions for the holding of a constitutional convention must be submitted to the people at intervals of sixteen years, and may be submitted at more frequent intervals, at the option of the Legislature. Under this provision the question was first submitted in 1866, when a majority voted in favor of a convention, but its work was decisively rejected at the polls. In 1882 the question was again submitted, and the decision was against a convention. The same thing happened in 1880, the majority against a convention being over 9,000. But somebody persuaded the next Legislature to re-submit the proposition, and it was carried at the recent election by the narrow majority of 703. The most remarkable feature of the matter is, that only 33,193 men expressed their opinion on the question either way, although the vote for President aggregated 465,653. That is to say, only one voter in fourteen cared enough about the question of a new Constitution to say either yes or no, and only a bare majority of this fourteenth favored the idea.

The acquittal of Prof. Briggs by a majority, even on the one crucial charge, larger than the closest observers of his trial had thought possible, is at once a great personal triumph for him and, all things considered, an astonishing display of open-mindedness on the part of the Presbytery. The result justifies the Professor's aggressive bearing and shows that he knew his jury well. An evening paper announced that his fate was sealed by his disrespect for the prosecuting committee, whom he accused of dwelling among bats and owls, but even this assertion has now been decided to be orthodox. There appears to be no doubt that the case will be appealed, and it is within the power of the prosecution to get a decision from the highest court of the denomination next May, which, in the present temper of the Presbyterian Church in the country at large, would certainly be adverse to Prof. Briggs. Yet his opponents will think twice before pushing things with a firm hand. If all the parties to the trial, and the public, are made so utterly weary by the preliminary battle before a jury of 130 members, what would be the result of bringing on a more extensive engagement before a jury of 600? Could all hope to come off alive? Moreover, it is as certain as any future event can be that the case, if fought out, will lead to a split in the Church. The peace-at-any-price men will have the floor during the next four months, and their arguments will have great weight with those who do not love a theological shindy. But, whatever the final outcome, the present decision will be generally and rightly taken as a victory for scholarship over an obsolescent theology, and a distinct set-

back for the owls and the bats. We say this without expressing any judgment on the technical question whether Prof. Briggs has a legal right to hold the views he does under the terms of Presbyterian subscription.

Mr. Gladstone reached his eighty-third birthday on Thursday, in good health and spirits, and is overwhelmed by the congratulations of his friends of all classes, from the Queen down. The tone in which the Tory press, too, has been speaking of him of late has changed greatly since 1886, notably in the case of the *London Times*, which loaded him with coarse abuse after his last defeat, but recently, apropos of his Liverpool address, covered him with respectful homage. The old villain who was trying to ruin his country eight years ago in combination with a band of Irish assassins, has become one of the glories of England—the last and by no means the least of a grand generation of statesmen and scholars. The truth is that the old gentleman, by surviving to this great age in full possession of his faculties, and with a mental activity and a capacity for affairs such as have rarely, if ever, been seen at that age, has touched the national pride, even among the regular Gladstone-haters of the upper ten thousand.

In this chorus of compliments the fact that Mr. Gladstone has, by merely living so long, achieved one of his greatest political triumphs, is likely to be overlooked, but a fact it is. There never was any concealment that one of the chief objects of Lord Salisbury's postponement of the general election to the latest possible date was to give Gladstone time to die or break down. There was no good Conservative who, in 1886, was not confident that by the next election Gladstone would certainly be out of the field. He frequently referred on the stump to this expectation of theirs as an explanation of their reluctance "to go to the country." "They were playing," he said, "against the life of an old man." He must, therefore, as the years ran by, have often chuckled over his own continued health and strength. As he runs about the country now, climbs mountains, chops down trees, and delivers courses of college lectures, besides bearing the chief burden of a great government, he must feel that he "has got the laugh" on his enemies as probably no octogenarian has ever got it before. They have cut down his majority, no doubt, but then even forty is a tremendous majority for a man who, they said, would certainly be dead when the election took place. It is pleasant to find that his continued existence is received with something like graceful resignation in circles in which he was once a shape of dread. The old lady who said she looked in the paper every morning eagerly for the news of his

death, and the old lady who said she would gladly pay for a rope to hang him, and the other old lady who, hearing he was coming to a funeral at which she was present, exclaimed in terror, "Oh, dear, I hope he won't make a disturbance," are doubtless all reconciled more or less to him as the last relic of a great generation of statesmen and soldiers who carried England, both in field and forum, through some of the most serious crises in her history.

The Home-Rule Bill which Mr. Gladstone has more than once announced as now his chief concern, is being drafted by a committee of the Cabinet of which Mr. James Bryce is the leading member. In giving him the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster, an office which is almost a sinecure, it was, we believe, Mr. Gladstone's desire to secure his time and attention for this work principally. How far the bill has got towards completion no outsider knows for certain, but Mr. Morley, in his recent speech to his constituents at Newcastle, intimated pretty clearly that it had virtually reached its final shape, and was a scheme which England "would" and Ireland "ought" to accept as a final settlement. But it must be admitted that the English public interest in it is more or less diminished by the expectation that the Lords will throw it out, and that their resistance, if ever overcome, would be overcome only after a struggle which Mr. Gladstone can hardly be expected to bring to a final close. Even if he resorted to the desperate measure of creating enough new Peers to swamp the Opposition, he could hardly create enough to overcome a majority of four hundred. Mr. Goldwin Smith compares the Lords to our Senate, which blocks legislation sent up from the House without the smallest danger to its existence or integrity; but he forgets to mention that the American Senate is an elected body, and that changes in its composition are, though slowly, effected by change in popular sentiment, while the House of Lords is a "close corporation," in which the majority always belongs to one party and can in no way be directly affected by any change in public opinion. This anomaly becomes every year more obnoxious, and the only way of curing it, while preserving the hereditary principle, would be the creation at each change of administration of as many new Peers as would suffice to bring the majority in the upper house into harmony with the majority in the House of Commons. But this would, of course, soon wreck the peerage as a branch of the Government. A compromise by which enough Peers of the majority stay away to let the minority work its will, was successfully tried in the passage of the Reform Bill and in that of the Irish Church Disestablishment Bill; but this must, of course, be a mere makeshift which cannot be often resorted to.

THE RIGHT TO LABOR.

THE American people have always been disposed to listen to appeals for the oppressed, being, as Mr. Bryce said in his book upon us, a people of kindly nature. Hence, when the trade-unions and labor organizations started up, some years ago, with their outcry against the tyranny of capital and their promises of better pay to workmen, they met with a great deal of sympathy. Most people were ignorant of the history of the trade-guilds of the middle ages, and had forgotten that the first reform of the French Revolution was the abolition of these corporations by Turgot. They good-naturedly welcomed this movement, in short, as they welcome any movement claiming to be benevolent, without at first scrutinizing its motives or criticising its methods; and while the people were in this mood, those who undertook to speak in behalf of "labor" succeeded in getting a good deal of "labor" legislation into our statute-books. It is scarcely necessary to say that by this time the people have taken the measure of this whole labor movement. Its jealous and monopolistic spirit has betrayed it, and it is now pretty generally understood that any advantages in wages gained by trade-unions are at the expense of the great body of laborers who are not members of these organizations. Perhaps it is not too much to say that the conviction is becoming general that wages cannot be increased, nor any great improvement in the condition of the poor be effected, by legislation, except in so far as legislation increases industry by removing its shackles. Probably we may hope for a diminution of "labor" legislation in the future, but it will take a long time to undo the mischief already done.

It is gratifying, therefore, to see evidences of a disposition on the part of the courts to exercise their constitutional function of protecting the fundamental liberties guaranteed by our bills of rights to all men. It is not surprising that there should be a disposition among our judges to go to great lengths in sustaining the constitutionality of statutes. The Legislature is a body presumptively representing the people and holding its mandate directly from them. In a State constituted like ours of several coördinate powers, it is the part of wisdom to avoid the appearance of conflicting jurisdictions and of undue extension of functions. But, after all, it is in our constitutions that the matured will of the people is expressed, and the highest trust committed to our courts is that of preserving intact those rights which have received constitutional guarantee.

Whatever timidity may have been observed in the defence of this trust by some of our courts, certain recent decisions by the Supreme Court of Illinois indicate a wholesome sense of responsibility on its part. A number of statutes have been passed in that State, at the demand of the labor organizations, prohibiting and en-

joining various acts and agreements in connection with the relation of employer and employed, especially in mining and manufacturing occupations. One of these statutes made it unlawful for any person or corporation to sell anything to any employee, and others provided that coal-miners should regulate wages according to certain methods of weighing coal at the pits, no matter what the wishes or interests of the parties might be—the transactions to be recorded, and the records to be open to the inspection of numerous private individuals and public functionaries. All these statutes have been condemned by the court.

As to the first of them, it was held that such a statute "was a prohibition, not only upon the employer engaged in mining or manufacturing, but also upon his employees, and took from both the right and liberty belonging to all other members of the community to enter into such contracts, not contrary to public policy, as they may see fit; that the Legislature had no power to deprive one class of persons of privileges allowed to other persons under like conditions; that the privilege of contracting is both a liberty and a property right, protected by that provision of the Constitution which guarantees that no person shall be deprived of his liberty or property without due process of law; and that if one person is denied the right to contract and acquire property in the manner which he has hitherto enjoyed under the law, and which is still allowed to other members of the community, he is deprived of both liberty and property to the extent that he is thus deprived of the right of contract." The other statutes were held unconstitutional upon the same ground, and for the kindred reason that men engaged in mining coal were especially discriminated against.

These decisions seem to us to be of the most enlightened character, and to be of the greatest value as securing the most important of all rights, the right of every man to the free disposal of his labor. As the protectionists have labored under the delusion that when a tax is imposed upon the products of foreign countries imported in exchange for our own, "the foreigner pays the tax," so the "labor" representatives have assumed that diminishing the profits of employers has no tendency to lessen the wages of their workmen. Doubtless many employers are disposed to be oppressive, but there is abundant evidence that this evil is not cured by imposing vexatious restraints upon all employers, good or bad. Nothing is better understood in the modern world, and especially in this country, than that it does not pay to starve either beasts or men if it is desired to get effective service from them; and it is almost self-evident that the employer who does not understand this is likely to meet with chastisement more effective than can be applied by the machinery of legislation.

Upon this subject a distinction has been taken by the Supreme Court of Rhode

Island which, if generally followed, would be subversive of the right to contract as recognized in Illinois. The Rhode Island court denies that such a right can be regarded as the property of any corporation created by the State, and maintains that a statute prescribing the terms upon which corporations and their employees may contract is not unconstitutional, because it does not impair the rights of employees to contract with "any person or body, natural or artificial, that is authorized to contract with them." There is undoubtedly much strength in this position, but in these days of enormous corporate activity the application of such doctrine might be practically destructive of the right to labor. We can only say by way of criticism at this time that there is nothing in the fiction of corporate entities that makes the nature of the contract for service different from what it is in the case of any large employer of labor, and that legislation which would be unconstitutional if directed against natural persons is not very likely to promote justice simply because it can be constitutionally applied in the case of persons invested by law with an artificial existence.

THE ENGLISH FARMER'S FLIGHT.

THE English Agricultural Conference which met three weeks ago in London to consider the deplorable condition of British agriculture was one of the most interesting meetings called forth by the present crisis in trade and finance, because it brought to light the real feelings of probably the most silent portion of the discontented classes. The English farmer has been going steadily down hill almost ever since 1873, but nobody has until now heard a word of complaint from him. The landlords have complained a great deal of the falling off of their rents, but the farmer has said nothing. This is, in part, due to the fact that farming is, and has been since 1815, more of a trade in England than in any other country, in which men invest capital as they would in manufacturing, and out of which they go quietly when they find it does not pay any longer. In most other European countries, farming is for the farmer simply a means of subsistence, and the only one open to him; and he clings to the soil whether times be bad or good.

But the English farmer's dumbness is also due to his extraordinary phlegm and the smallness of his vocabulary. He is probably the least vocal of civilized men, and one has to know him to know what amount of culture it has taken to get English literature and eloquence out of the original Anglo-Saxon stock. Tennyson's "Northern Farmer, Old and New Style," contains probably the whole of the farmer's politics and political economy since the beginning of the present century, and nothing can well be simpler and more direct. Fidelity to the Squire, to the "Constitution

in Church and State," and a stern determination to keep the laborer in his place, have included almost his whole philosophy of life. His long support of the Corn Laws—which were enacted in 1815, nominally for his benefit, but out of which he got little or nothing—until he was beaten by the manufacturers and the professors and "bookmen" in 1846, was the most curious episode in his career. Thorold Rogers makes it clear that the cultivator of the soil made little or no profit out of the enormous prices for grain which he obtained during the thirty years of high protection. The profit was all absorbed by the landlords, in raised rents, but the farmer stood by them stoutly in the desperate resistance they offered to Cobden and the League.

Cobden was just as odious to them in the ten years before 1846 as his memory is now to the American manufacturer; and Peel, when he became a free trader, was as great an object of opprobrium in English country houses as Gladstone has been since he became a convert to Irish home rule. In fact, the very name of "free-trader" was as great a term of reproach at a "farmers' ordinary" in the wheat-growing counties in England during the Anti-Corn Law agitation as it has been during the past ten years here at the dinners of a "Home-Market Club," or a "Business Men's Protective Association," or as "Abolitionist" was at the South for twenty years before the war. Anthropologists might find much entertainment in comparing the political abuse of these three periods and places. Nothing brings out the wonderful homogeneity of human nature under different skies and differing governments more clearly than an attack on the pocket of the individual man, such as is necessarily made in all attempts to abolish protective duties. The fury of a woman scorned or of a tigress in defence of her cubs is often almost equalled by the rage of the possessor of an infant industry, whose 50 or 60 per cent. of state nourishment is threatened by a malignant theorist.

The English farmer has, however, at last appeared on the platform, as a class apart from the landlords, to say his say about the agricultural crisis through which England is slowly passing. When a man who has long been famous for his silence asks for a hearing, he is apt to command general attention, and when the farmer took the floor, England became all ears. It was generally expected that he would demand, in thunder tones, some or all of the now familiar remedies of the Irish farmer—judicial rents, fixity of tenure, compensation for improvements, and the abolition of the power of distress for rent—and that he would, perhaps, blow a blast against the game laws. But, to the astonishment of the public, about none of these things did he seem to care. In fact, the delegates seemed to have no grievance against the landlords at all. They acknowledged that the rents, except in two or three counties, had been reduced

as much as could be expected, and that other grievances did not exist—one of the most striking proofs we have had for a long time of the healthiness of the relations between landlord and tenant in England. What the farmers asked for, and voted for, and refused to hear opposed, was, to the public amazement, a restoration of the duties on farm produce, more especially wheat. As this would mean, of course, dearer food for the laborers in all callings, there is about as much chance of their getting it as of restoring the Heptarchy, but they gave every possible proof of their faith in it as the only remedy worth talking about, and they roared down all opponents of it, and broke up amid the laughter and jeers of the manufacturing districts and "the professors."

A touch of the humorous was given to the close of the proceedings by the appearance on the scene of Mr. Chaplin, the late Minister of Agriculture, and the finest specimen perhaps in England of the old-fashioned Tory Squire, as the advocate of bimetallism. With silver restored to its ancient and rightful place in the currency, he holds that the ills of the farmer as well as those of the artisan and the merchant would vanish; American competition would somehow subside, incomes would increase, and prices remain steady. He became so excited over his theme that he went so far as to embrace that just now Tory abomination, Archbishop Walsh of Dublin, who, too, has come out for bimetallism; for it would appear that in spite of differences of race, religion, birth, and calling, all bimetallists are brethren. In fact, there are numerous signs that all people who are "hard up," or are bothered by their creditors, tend naturally either to plain silver or to a bimetallic compound, as the true money of the poor and unfortunate, the weary and heavy-laden. The Irish and English farmer, the embarrassed trader, self-supporting women, widows, orphans, shipwrecked sailors, clergymen on small salaries—in fact, everybody but millionaires—would, it appears, be the better of the bimetallic tonic. It seems such a simple remedy that the reluctance of the nations to try it somewhat resembles the aberrations of the Israelites in the wilderness.

THE FRENCH NEW YEAR.

The new year opens with a good deal of perplexity for all the civilized nations, but probably for none with so much tribulation as for the French. The Panama Canal scandal has brought to light a good many weak places in the framework of their Government, more particularly the overwhelming predominance of the Chamber over the Senate and the President. No sooner does a great strain come on the Republican Constitution than it plainly appears that neither the President nor the Senate counts for much, that the seat of sovereignty is in the Chamber of Deputies,

and, what is still worse, that the Deputies themselves perceive this, and in trying times have to exercise some self-restraint in not converting themselves into a Committee of Public Safety and throwing the Constitution overboard. The other branches of the Government have plainly but little public sentiment behind them. In times of excitement it seems to be as much as they can do to hold their own. Far from exercising any controlling influence, or even moderate influence, on the crisis, they are content if they are not accused or can escape notice. There were signs of this when President Grévy was driven into resignation by the simple refusal of the Chamber to form a ministry for him. This is the all but inevitable consequence of the election of the President by the Parliament. What creates can generally destroy. The American President, on the other hand, being elected by the popular vote, has deeper roots in the popular will than either Senate or House, and could probably defy Congress, even if he were obliged, as is the President in France, to make up his Cabinet from among members of Congress.

But the danger to which this rule exposes a removable Executive has been thoroughly revealed in recent French experience. The expulsion of President Grévy from office by simply refusing to serve under him was a precedent which clearly has not been forgotten in the present crisis. It showed the Chamber the full extent of its powers, and probably prepared the way for the Panama explosion, by which both President and Senate have been completely pushed aside. Not only this, but criminal jurisdiction has been wrested from the ordinary tribunals and turned over to a committee of the Chamber charged with all the furious passions of the hour. If we can imagine the Poland Committee in 1872 not only armed with the power of sending for persons and papers for purposes of investigation, but overriding the courts of law in the District of Columbia, and arresting and keeping in prison everybody, whether members of the House or not, suspected of connection with the *Crédit-Mobilier* scandal, and pursuing them with processes unknown to the law, we shall have some idea of the very slight hold which the constitutional division of powers has just now on the French mind. The Senate is all the while shaking in its boots, and President Carnot is probably only too thankful when the day closes without a formal declaration that he is the worst of the lot, and ought to "go."

The second, and possibly more alarming, revelation made by the crisis is the boldness of the Anarchists with their new weapon—dynamite. The knowledge of the power of terrorizing the community which this has given them, has increased their insolence to a degree not heretofore witnessed. Their temper, too, is one which makes all conciliation and compromise seem as impossible with them

as with wild beasts. Their sole programme is to "wring the necks" of people who own any property, and, in fact, bring about a general dissolution of the social bond. The Socialists proper do not go quite as far as this, but they go a good way with the Anarchists. In some of the smaller towns, such as Montluçon and Roubaix, having elected the Mayor and got hold of the local government, almost their first act has been the dismissal and disorganization of the police, so as to render them powerless for the protection of persons and property against mob violence. In fact, if they were paid to prepare the French republic for "the Man on Horseback" or "the Saviour of Society," they could not go to work more effectively or systematically. Their numbers and audacity are in truth leading large numbers of people in France, as well as elsewhere, to the conclusion that a revolution, or attempt at revolution, once in twenty years, is one of the necessities of French society, in order to make a clearance in the capital of the dangerous class which springs up with each new generation.

Under the first Empire the ruthless demands, ruthlessly enforced, of the army, converted all the malcontents of the capital into food for cannon. In 1849 and 1851, risings against the Republic and the Empire respectively led to their slaughter or deportation in immense numbers. In 1870 their temporary success as "the Commune" caused their destruction on a greater scale than ever before. In 1890 another crop of them had sprung up, which, were there a monarch now on the throne, would have again attempted to try conclusions with the troops in the streets, in the hope of meeting with only a half-hearted resistance; for the one thing no modern monarch, except, perhaps, that of Russia, can afford to do, is to treat his own capital as a city taken by assault, and sweep the streets with grape. If there were now either a Bonapartist or an Orleanist on the French throne, he would think many times before ordering the troops to do their worst on his beloved subjects; and the enemies of order would know his weakness and count on it. The Republic has no need of any such tenderness. It has no family interests behind it to be taken care of, and if Gen. Saussier, the commander of the Paris garrison, had now to try conclusions with an armed insurrection, he would assuredly put it down with as unflinching a hand as Gen. Gallifet in 1871. Such portions of the flower of anarchy as escaped from the barricades would meet their fates, as their predecessors did, with their backs to some barrack wall at the hands of firing parties, and for twenty years more there would be peace in the land.

The malcontents of our day know all this well, and will probably not give the troops a chance to try the new Lebel rifle on them, or in any manner show themselves in the open. But this at present almost increases

the embarrassment of the Government, as the struggle with concealed Anarchists, whose ranks have not undergone the usual thinning, and who have since 1870 come into possession of a real, formidable, and cheap weapon, is likely to be protracted and ineffective. Anarchism is probably an old disease, but the earlier ages disposed of it by summary and savage methods which are not open to modern Governments. We are fighting it with schools and philanthropy, but neither of these seems as yet to contain the proper cure. The schools teach the Anarchist to read Karl Marx and learn that the well-to-do are robbers, and that philanthropy is for the most part a feeble and impudent attempt at partial restitution.

PRESIDENT LOW ON UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

IN the January number of the *Educational Review* the President of Columbia College gives his impressions of the condition and tendencies of the "higher education" in the United States. He modestly disclaims expert authority, and undertakes only to state "the impressions of one coming from without into the educational field." But whatever Dr. Low may have been in 1890, he is no longer an outsider in educational matters. He has been for three years the head of a great and growing university, and the period of his Presidency has been one of especially rapid development. The University has been transformed from a collection of unrelated fragments into an organic whole, and its consolidation has not only checked a considerable waste of educational energy, but has given a wise direction to the forces thus set free. It is not probable that all this progress is due solely to the wisdom of the President. Every revolution has its antecedent history, and it may be assumed that the changes made at Columbia during the past three years had long been preparing; but the speed and smoothness with which they were realized after Dr. Low's accession to office show a greater degree of insight into educational matters than his disclaimer would indicate.

In surveying the development of the higher education during the past quarter of a century, Dr. Low distinguishes two currents. One of these he terms the "world current" and ascribes to "the demand which has been felt everywhere for the recognition of new studies as of equal intrinsic value, in these days, with the old humanities. This pressure has come especially from two directions: from the modern languages and from the many new developments of science. No country has been exempt from this pressure." The result in this country has been a widening of the field of college instruction, partly by the establishment of "parallel curricula," partly by the introduction of the elective system.

The other current he terms "national"; and this, in his analysis, is substantially

university development as distinguished from the mere broadening of the college course. Its most important results are the incorporation of the professional schools into the scheme of the university, the development of non-professional graduate courses, and the correlation of the professional courses with the courses of research. Above the "higher education," in the old sense of the term, has appeared "this new thing, the university"; and "the college . . . is no longer and never can become again . . . the top of the educational system of the United States." "The college aims, or should aim, to lay the broad foundation upon which the university must build."

With this general statement of the tendencies of the highest education in the United States no one can well quarrel, but issue may be taken with Dr. Low's use of terms. Is the university movement in any true sense a "national" as distinguished from a "world current"? The whole movement, as he recognizes, is largely due to men educated abroad and familiar with the great European universities; and in our organization of the American university we are steadily approaching the Continental model. We think that the future historian of education in the United States will describe this movement in the midst of which we stand to-day as "the reception of the German university system." Of course we are not borrowing that system in all its details, and of course much that we have borrowed is becoming modified by American conditions; but we are debtors to Germany for the main principles of the new organization.

From the point of broadest view it seems to us that Dr. Low's two currents are identical in source, and that the only distinction is in the channels into which the stream has poured. A generation ago a great body of new learning was striving to force its way into our educational system. Not merely were the modern languages and the natural sciences inadequately housed in our schools and colleges, but philology, philosophy, the historical and political sciences, and the higher and more complex branches of inductive natural science were without academic shelter of any sort. The establishment of "parallel courses" (which term, we suppose, includes the scientific schools) and the introduction of the elective system could only partly meet the necessities of the situation. For advanced work in all these neglected subjects, the preliminary training of the college (or something equivalent to that training) was absolutely required. Some attempt was made, indeed, to crowd advanced courses into the already overcrowded college curriculum, but the results were far from satisfactory. The proper place for such work was in graduate courses; and with the establishment of graduate courses coördinated with the professional courses, these studies have begun to thrive and bear fruit. What is more, they have begun to broaden the

work of the professional schools and to inspire them with the true university spirit—to which, as Schiller said long ago, Isis is “the high and heavenly goddess,” and not merely “the excellent cow that supplies its devotees with butter.”

Much of this Dr. Low himself recognizes. He says in terms that the introduction of the elective system into our colleges was largely due to the university movement. What he does not say, unless between the lines, but what we believe to be true, is that in so far as true university work, especially work of research, has been crowded into the college course, the experiment has been unsuccessful. The attempt to provide in this way for the highest education has been a failure. The stream has forced its way into the wrong channel.

It is a natural corollary of Dr. Low's view of the relation of the college and the university that he should look forward to a time when the college training shall be made a prerequisite for university education in theology, law, and medicine.

“The prophetic eye,” he says, “can even now discern the day when a college education will be a condition precedent for entrance into the professional schools of the American university. This will not mean that only college-trained men will make good practitioners in law or medicine, for example, nor that only college-trained men are entitled to a professional education. It will rather mean, I think, that the university will then have fully realized its own obligation to the country to send forth into professional life, in all parts of the land, men of a thorough and wide equipment. . . . I am not anticipating this result in the immediate future; but that this is the end towards which things are tending, seems to me hardly open to dispute.”

Perhaps, when the universities of the country have taken this position, the people of the country may say that no man shall be permitted to practise law or medicine without college and university training. That is the position which republican France and democratic Germany—socially democratic under its monarchic forms of government—have already taken, refusing to put up with professional service that is in any way short of the best that their educational institutions can provide.

THE PANAMA QUESTION.

PARIS, December 15, 1892.

ONE of the principal newspapers of Paris asserted recently, in somewhat melancholy tone, that the entire Republic of France seemed to have suspended its activity, and that both Government and country appeared to exist for but a single thing. The assertion is true enough. For some little time now nothing else has been discussed but the Panama question. It supplies the matter for every conversation, the theme of every newspaper article. It has brought about the fall of a Ministry, and the succeeding Cabinet has been constituted not on its own political programme, but on its views in reference to this subject. In the importance that has thus been assigned to the Panama scandal, there is, however, some allowance to be made for exaggeration. In order to pass a sound judgment, one needs to try and rearrange the perspective. When this is done, and one has eliminated personalities and considerations of merely secondary import,

one is able to perceive that the gravity of the facts, from a general point of view, is in no wise proportionate to the ado made about them, and that what is really most worthy of attention is things that have been considered accessory, and have thus been little noticed.

The events which have brought about the present crisis are too well known to need more than a brief reference to them. In consequence of the success of the Suez Canal, M. Lesseps enjoyed throughout France a popularity that one may characterize as prodigious. By means of it he was admitted a member of the Academy. He became the “Grand Français.” And so, when he placed himself at the head of a new enterprise, having as its object another isthmus to be pierced, the scheme appeared excellent in the eyes of the public at large, and subscriptions flowed in. This money, however, be it noted, came almost all of it from the pockets of the lower middle classes. The accredited capitalists of the country held aloof, either because they questioned the enthusiastic statements of M. Lesseps, and were the better able to realize the enormous material difficulties of the enterprise, or because they remembered certain details in the history of the Suez Canal which the final success of the enterprise had caused to be forgotten. At the end of a relatively short time, the Panama Company found itself involved in the greatest embarrassment. The financial management was deplorable; the works made hardly any progress; and in spite of the credit of M. Lesseps, in spite of the fallacious accounts that were published in profusion, public confidence was shaken. In order to obtain more money, the Company conceived the plan of issuing shares with lottery prizes attached to them. For this plan to be authorized an act of Parliament was necessary. A bill was brought in by the Government giving the requisite authorization, and, in spite of opposition from a section of the Chamber, the law was voted in the spring of 1888. The emission of these new shares was a complete failure, and in December of the same year the Company was obliged to suspend payment. The Government made a last attempt to save an enterprise that had swallowed up a milliard and a half of French capital. It proposed a bill to suspend for three months all the liabilities of the Panama Company. This extraordinary measure was rejected by the Chamber, and the Company was forced into liquidation. At the same time the affair was brought under the cognizance of the tribunals. Certain acts of the directors were found to have been irregular and an inquiry was instituted.

After a certain lapse of time, however, the matter was hushed up. The inquiry was said to be proceeding, but as no one saw any result, the public began to think that the Government feared the scandal of a public trial in which M. Lesseps would be implicated, and that, consequently, it sought to procrastinate, in the hope that the death of this octogenarian might occur to free the situation. In fact, people considered the affair as definitively dead and buried. Such was not the case. The Government, it is true, knowing better than anybody else the secrets of the affair, would have been only too willing to do nothing at all in the matter. But this attitude of indifference it was not allowed to maintain. A few weeks ago the papers announced that proceedings had been ordered against the directors of the Company, and that the Government was to be interpellated in reference to the question.

There is scarcely any need to recall the

events that succeeded. Every one knows how a member of the Chamber declared from the tribune that a large number of Deputies had been bribed by the Panama Company to vote for the bill authorizing the issue of lottery shares, and how a parliamentary committee of inquiry was chosen to investigate facts of this nature. The Committee set to work at once, summoned witnesses, discovered a certain number of facts seeming to justify the action of the Deputy who had made the accusations, but soon came into conflict with the magistrates, who refused to communicate the papers which were in the possession of the courts, and which, by the letter of the law, should be kept rigorously secret. At the same time the Loubet Cabinet, which only sought a pretext for resigning, allowed itself to be overthrown apropos of an incident without importance and almost ridiculous in its nature. But after a crisis of some days' duration, since no one was willing to accept power until all these thorny questions should be settled, the spectacle was presented of the Government's coming back to office with almost all of its former members, under the Presidency of M. Ribot.

The events I have thus rapidly recapitulated—the labors of the Committee of Inquiry, the conflict between this committee and the magistracy, the fall and reconstitution of the Ministry—all centre in a single fact, viz., the bringing to light of certain reprehensible acts perpetrated in the affair of the Panama Canal, with which have been mixed up a number of individuals belonging to the political world. These revelations have made a great noise throughout the country. The newspapers have filled their columns with daily accounts of the scandal; and such as flourish chiefly by the publication of sensational articles, have multiplied their editions in which the ordinary facts of the case have been dressed up in the most fanciful manner. To judge from all this agitation, it would seem that these sorry events are of a nature to revolutionize the whole State; and yet, if one rightly considers the matter, the sensation produced throughout the country is not in reality so great as one may be tempted to believe. And first of all, for many people there were no discoveries to be made. It had long been known that dishonest acts had been perpetrated. The incidents of the last few days have done no more than confirm what had before been pretty well understood, and the individuals accused were just those in reference to whose honesty or dishonesty no mistake was possible. And so, for those who had any knowledge at all of these things, saddened as they might be by the sight of so much mud stirred up, and regretting on political grounds the glare of publicity thus thrown upon it, these revelations were no revelations at all.

The country at large, it is true, was not in the same position. The vast majority of electors knew nothing of what existed under outside appearances. One may nevertheless question whether the revelations now made are of a nature to make a lasting impression upon them, capable, at least, of affecting their votes sufficiently to bring about a modification in the politics of the country. In general, such a belief does not prevail. As a matter of fact, the electoral committee which has nominated a Deputy deeply compromised in the Panama scandal, will not on this account necessarily withdraw its confidence from him. Ten to one, the committee will not be able to see clearly into the matter. They will probably accept as current coin the explanations given; they will not be able to understand the fictitious operations that have served to conceal the acts

of bribery, and they will end by accepting, as being lawful, transactions which in reality were nothing better than swindles in the eyes of people more experienced. If anything be needed to prove that this is so, we have at hand the quite recent case of M. Wilson. The acts of which he had been guilty, and which, it will be remembered, caused the resignation of his father-in-law, M. Grévy, were far more openly dishonest than those of the Deputies implicated in the Panama affair; and yet he passes in his constituency for a victim, and has been reelected County Councillor.

From a more general point of view, the Panama revelations are not sufficient in themselves to discredit the Government in power and to cause a reaction against it. For one thing, the members compromised are not confined to the majority; and, in addition to this, it would need an organized Opposition to be able to take advantage of the situation. But, as I have several times had occasion to show, the Opposition at the present time is completely disorganized.

In the occurrences of the last few weeks, however, attention has been drawn to a certain number of what we may call characteristic facts. Defects little suspected have suddenly been revealed in our constitutional organization. The French Constitution naturally comprises several pieces of machinery of different structure—executive power, Senate, Chamber of Deputies—designed to be complementary to each other, and, by balancing each other, to prevent any surprise. Now, in the incidents we have just passed through, it is the Chamber of Deputies alone that has manifested its existence. The Senate, as may be supposed, has not been involved, and the executive power is itself eclipsed in presence of the all-powerful Deputies. One newspaper declared that it was the President of the Commission, M. Brisson, who was sole governor of France, and the assertion was not far short of the truth. The Committee of Inquiry has arrogated to itself every power, and has imposed upon the Chamber all its wishes. The magistracy, as we remarked above, tried to resist, but the Government has removed a recalcitrant magistrate from his post, and the resistance has been broken. This omnipotence of the Chamber, this inability of any part of the Government whatsoever to resist its wishes and even its caprices, is somewhat alarming, for at whatever date the Chamber might be pleased to reassume the rôle played by its predecessor in 1792, it is difficult to see what there would be to prevent it. At the same time we may remark that the peculiar situation which the Panama scandal has thus thrown into relief has no real connection with it; whence we may conclude, speaking politically and not morally, that the importance of recent events is not so great as the newspapers would have us believe.

In a word, a disinterested person, that is, a person who is neither Deputy, journalist, nor shareholder in the Panama scheme, if he would sum up the impression produced by the events of the last week or two—of which the end is not yet—might exclaim, not, "Much ado about nothing," for the present spectacle is really full of interest, but, "Much cry and little wool."

THE GALILEO FESTIVAL AT PADUA.

FLORENCE, December 12, 1892.

WHEN, as a tourist, at the close of October, I spent three days at Padua, not dreaming that I should so soon be summoned there again, I thought that I had never seen a more pictur-

esque, but also rarely a more dead or dormant, place. Under the mellow autumn haze the great ramparts looked sleepily at the Euganean Mountains across the fertile Lombardo-Venetian plain, with its little polled willows and mulberry trees everlastingly festooned with vines. The slender branches of the river wound lazily in their course through every quarter of the town, washing old fretted house-foundations or crannied garden-walls of brick, and spanned by single-arched bridges of masonry about whose feet the weeds and wild flowers grew. The massive little houses, hoary or black from the weather of centuries, dozed behind their iron-barred or heavy wooden-shuttered windows; the churches were empty; and beneath the low and sombre arcades the dull-eyed women all seemed poor, while the men went slowly and looked lank and concave under their faded brown or olive cloaks. The narrow streets rattled to the sound of no carriage-wheels, and showed no soil of horses; for the only vehicles one ever met were a couple of superannuated cabs, a rare donkey-cart with vegetables, or some wagon with gray oxen heavily drawing a cask of wine—the slowly gathering evening of a town whose morning had been strong and sweet, one felt, but which was doomed at last to the black ruin under whose curse sad Venice could be seen visibly rotting under one's eyes only a few miles away.

Such is the shallow sort of impression to which we Americans, wandering in search of picturesque effect, and never getting a peep at the inner life of the places we visit, abandon ourselves without hesitation. How different, we love to say, from our bright and cosy wooden homes, with their new paint and their morally enlightened interiors, are these moribund abodes, with their feet resting on stone arches, their fireless chambers, and their sunless courts. The weather has gnawed the plaster of their upper stories, and on their basements the street inflicts with impunity every excoiation and obscene affront. Their very walls seem soaked with wickedness. In the corners of their dwelling-rooms darkness and ancient guilt must mantle; and the souls of the people who are born there must grow up with something gloomy and, so to speak, cavernous about them—something like a ghostly blight from their consanguinity with all that sinful past. To romantic reverie of this sort I had let my imagination drift at Padua hardly less than at other places in Italy. And yet the tramway to the station, the large and handsome café in the centre of the town, a certain air of solidity about the houses in spite of the surface-decay of so many, and above all the admirable paving of the streets, ought to have put me on a truer track. Italian cities in general, however, are paved with a perfection undreamed of in America, where we too have ruins and antiquities, only we keep them horizontal. But the plain fact is that Padua was empty when I was there. The University was closed, many of the rich citizens were in the country still; and in a town of 50,000 people that makes a great difference. But, apart from that, the picturesque impression of life which an American gets in these old cities is purely subjective and false. It is a case of the "pathetic fallacy." We think that these people themselves feel as a lot of kiln-dried Americans would feel if suddenly made to sleep in their mildewed abodes. But no generation of men ever themselves feel mildewed, however they may strike an ignorant spectator—even the Venetians being hearty and hopeful

and happy in their unspeakable decay. To the solid flesh of youth, in whatever antique surroundings born and bred, the world and life ever did and ever will seem fresh and young; and it was the young and jolly side of old Padua which revealed itself this week upon my second visit to the town.

On the 7th of December three hundred years ago, Galileo, who, though but twenty-eight years old, had already discovered the laws of falling bodies, was installed as professor of mathematics in the Paduan University, which, that year, numbered in round terms 1,000 officers and students divided into their respective nations. He stayed there eighteen years, the most peaceful of his life, and in them made his astronomical discoveries and wrote his best-known works. The present University accordingly has celebrated by a great festival, in which the city joined, the tercentenary anniversary of the great Pisan's advent, sending, as is usual, invitations to learned bodies all over the world. The Italians manage festivals well, with a light but at the same time careful touch, which provides plenty to see and hear and eat and drink, but of nothing too heavily or too long. The student's revelries lasted the whole week, and drew great crowds from other places. The official exercises lasted but three days, and were an excellent pattern of what such things may be in a place with the proper conformation and resources.

On the first day a general but informal social reception, a visit in carriages to all the monuments and art-treasures of Padua, and a ball; on the second day the great commemorative solemnity in the "Aula Magna" of the University, a banquet, and a gala representation at the opera; on the third day a procession on foot through the city to lay wreaths and make speeches at Galileo's statue; and finally another banquet. Besides this, there were shooting and sword-play by the students, and elaborate ceremonies under their direction in the noble and enormous "Salone," or great civic hall. As if by enchantment, Padua had thrown off the mask of sleepiness and decay; the streets were filled with barouches with liveried servants—where they sprang from I don't know, but I now know that Padua has more millionaires for her population than any town in Italy—put at the disposition of the guests. Windows were draped and festooned, hotels were swarming, streets were illuminated—in short, the real life was revealed. The two dinners in particular were an instructive surprise. One was for 125, the other for 160, guests; and if any public dinner as large was ever more charmingly and successfully served in any American city, however big and proud of its powers of display, I should like to have proof of the fact. Neither dinner lasted more than two hours and a half; and the speeches at the end, marvellous to relate, averaged only three minutes long! The impatient Italian audience began to stir and grow inattentive the moment an orator transgressed. Twice we were received in opulent clubhouses, the inner decoration of one of which, in the classic style of the beginning of the century, was memorable for purity of design and harmony of tone. The opera, an immense theatre, was filled with a splendid audience of handsome men and women, bright-eyed with excitement, all in full evening dress, who had the pleasure, at the end, of seeing *Hamlet* kill the wicked king.

But the principal event was, of course, the commemorative service in the University's great hall. Imagine a lofty room, nearly a hundred and twenty feet square, with a heavy

ly panelled ceiling golden-brown in tone, lit by high windows on a single side, and filled to its last inch with sitting and standing human beings. The walls, of a glowing bronze-colored groundwork, are almost covered with the armorial 'scutcheons which students for generation upon generation have left there to perpetuate their memory. Most of these 'scutcheons are small and uniform in size, and arranged with regularity so as to form a sort of coat of mail for the mural surface which they cover. At irregular intervals this monotony is broken by larger armorial devices and by gaps. The tone of the walls, thus bedecked, is indescribably rich and splendid, as the light pours over them, catching the edge of the countless gilded bosses and scrolls, and mingling the bright heraldic colors into a deeper bloom. The same light, streaming through the windows, makes the very air of the room visible as a faint bluish vapor floating over the heads of the multitude; which heads, in turn (as one surveys their number), mass themselves into a monotonously patterned background, against which single groups and files of individuals stand out, by the accident of their position, in bold relief. All the heads repeat, with every degree of softening by distance, the same decorative effect, of one side black in shadow and the other edged with ghostly white; for, whatever the individual human face may be, the aggregate tone of a "sea of human faces" is anything but what is known as "flesh-color." Round the high-canopied pulpit, against a wall at right angles to the windows, are ranged the Rector and Council of the University, the Minister of Public Instruction, and the professors of other universities, in all their diversity of academic costume. The rector, Professor Ferraris (most wonderful of men for instantaneously knowing what to do and how to do it, what to say and how to say it in half-a-dozen different tongues), makes his speech at the desk below the pulpit; Professor Favaro, a well-known Galileo specialist, ascends, delivers his long discourse upon that hero—a discourse so good that when he comes down to the floor again, his Paduan colleagues of the Council, in their gowns of black and ermine, and with their silver hair and moustaches, hug him to their bosoms and kiss him on both cheeks, while the audience roars its approval. Italian cheers, by the way, are real cheers, and not like the hideous staccato yelp which prevails at American universities. Then, after a few impressive words, in a deep bass voice and modest manner, from Signor Martini, the Minister, the delegates from foreign parts come up to the desk with the salutations of the bodies to which they belong. Their order has been decided by lot, and Great Britain is called first. Sir Thomas Fayrer, from the Royal Society, and Prof. George Darwin, from Cambridge, each in a splendid scarlet broadcloth robe, lay down their scrolls of parchment and utter brief speeches of greeting in the Italian tongue. They are much appreciated by the audience: "Parla bene!" "Pronunzia bene!" one hears murmured in tones not devoid of surprise. Then follow for an hour or more other delegates in every tongue and in every garb. But the orator of the occasion was Prof. Schmurlo of Dorpat in Russia. The type of the lonely and ungainly scholar in appearance, he nevertheless spoke a few phrases so ultra-Italian in the ingenious gracefulness of their turn that the audience went fairly wild with delight. Then honorary degrees were rapidly distributed, and the great concourse slowly worked its way out.

The main effect of such a festival is to make one feel that the differences between nations, which we commonly take so much account of, are very superficial. At bottom our sentiments, impulses, and ways of taking pleasure are the same. In particular are the great men of different countries made of one human stuff. In the rolls of the University of Padua for 1592 (published afresh, among other things, for this occasion), we find in the list of lecturers the following entry:

*Ad Mathematicam leges ad
Ers. D. Galileus de Galileis Flo- libitum
rentinus noviter conductus hora 25.*

Nothing distinguishes outwardly this unobtrusive passage from the rest of the book, yet it announces no less a fact than the first teaching of modern science. Galileo's conceptions are now to our beliefs about nature what the heart is to our bodily life. Could either be annihilated, remediless collapse would result. The more natural is it, therefore, in reading in Galileo's works, to note how little of a foreigner the man seems. He has the same indescribable mixture of homeliness with his subtlety that make our own Locke, Faraday, and Darwin seem so little remote from our bosoms. Few of us realize, either, how recent his activity was, or what a mushroom growth is this stupendous scientific edifice of which we are so proud. Five successive human lives measure the whole span of it. Five men, Galileo being the first of them, who should each in old age impart the discoveries of his generation to a youth who, when grown old in turn, should do the same, would bring the whole history and tradition of natural science down to 1892. It is sometimes well to remember this when we hear people assuming that all the great scientific discoveries are already made, and that the future industry of the human race will be limited to filling in the canvas with detail.

W. J.

MEMOIRS OF COUNT CHEVERNY.—II.

PARIS, December 23, 1892.

CHEVERNY gives curious details on the *convulsions* who for a time were the great sensation of Paris. A certain Father La Barre directed these manifestations, which were witnessed by all the ladies of the court. Cheverny's account reminded me of some representations given by the Aissouas during one of the last Expositions. Cheverny saw a poor woman crucified by Father La Barre; he would see no more, "having," he says, "a great aversion to the sight of any pain."

He was beginning to be tired of his function, and bought the estate of Cheverny, as well as the office of "Lieutenant-General of Flaisois." On this occasion the King made him Count of Cheverny (his family name, as I have said, being Dufort). He began a new life, embellished his house, and made the acquaintance of all his neighbors, whom he describes with minute detail. His account of life in the châteaux of Orléanais in the eighteenth century has a real interest. Cheverny was very sociable; he was fond of theatrical representations, and entertained his neighbors constantly; he spent some time in Paris every year and kept up all his old acquaintances there.

He had remained greatly attached to the Duc de Choiseul, and, when the Duke was exiled at Chanteloup, he became one of his faithful visitors. The distance from Cheverny to Chanteloup is only ten leagues. Our Count was in Paris at the time of the death of Louis XV.; he had kept his *entrées*, and as

soon as he heard of the King's illness he started for Versailles. Mme. du Barry had already been ordered to leave the castle by the Dauphin. The King was in the hands of the doctors. La Borde, his valet de chambre, was the only person to whom he spoke.

"La Borde told me that one morning the King called him with a firm voice, looked to see if they were quite alone, and said to him: 'And Mme. du Barry, where is she?' La Borde answered without hesitating: 'Sire, she went away this mornin'.' Then the King said: 'What! already!' La Borde saw two great tears roll down his cheeks, and then he sank on his bed, without speaking any more."

Speaking of the new King, Louis XVI., Cheverny says: "He was the best of men; afraid of the weight of his crown, he did not know in whom to confide, as he trusted none of the people who were around him. The King, with much nobility and elevation of mind, had only the tastes of a pretty woman." It was almost accidentally that the King chose Maupeou for his Prime Minister. "He became Prime Minister for the misfortune of France, as it was he who, by his carelessness, prepared the great events which destroyed this august monarchy."

In his visits to the capital Cheverny saw chiefly his friend Sedaine, to whom he was much attached and who made him acquainted with Dorat, Diderot, and others. This is his description of Diderot: "Diderot, fat and stout, full of fire, letting himself out with the greatest confidence in the world, discussing, even disputing, was not imposing, notwithstanding his reputation, because of his frank *bonhomie*. He was inexhaustible, and, as he liked conversation, was a dazzling firework. . . . He was the best man in the world." Cheverny was curious about everything and everybody. He would see Mesmer and his famous experiments, which he tried in vain to repeat at home. He was dying to know the famous Mme. du Barry, and one of his friends arranged an interview.

"She was living then at her fine house at Luciennes, which Louis XV. had given to her, and which Louis XVI. had left her in. It was freezing; she arrived in a carriage with six horses and entered the room with a noble ease. She was tall, extremely well made, and was a *jolie femme* in every way. After a quarter of an hour she was quite at ease with us. My wife was the only woman there; all the attentions of Madame du Barry were for her and for the master of the house, and she showed herself affable towards everybody. President Salabarry, Chevalier de Pontgibaud, and a few others were there. She kept the conversation going. She spoke first of Luciennes, and asked us to go there and dine with her. We accepted, but indefinitely. Her pretty face was a little heated; she told us she took a cold bath every day. She showed us that under a long pelisse she wore only a shirt and a thin *man-teau de lit*; everything was of the greatest magnificence; I had never seen a finer *batiste*. The dinner was charming."

The Chevalier de Pontgibaud wore the cross of Cincinnatus. Mme. du Barry, seeing it, said that while she was at Versailles she had six footmen, the finest that could be found, but very undisciplined. She was obliged to dismiss one, who left for America at the beginning of the war. She gave him a purse well filled with gold. He came afterwards to see her and presented himself with the cross of Cincinnatus. "This story made everybody laugh, with the exception of the Chevalier de Pontgibaud."

When the first provincial assemblies were convoked, Cheverny was made a member of the Assembly of his province; afterwards came the elections to the States-General. In entering on this new period, so different from the first, he tells us:

"I witnessed the general breaking up of French society, the disappearance of a royal

family worthy of the respect and devotion of all Frenchmen. I will retrace only what was personal to myself. Retired on my estate, I will . . . prove that, notwithstanding all human prudence, you can escape danger only through a Providence which directs and conducts events. I will show what privations were suffered by persons who could enjoy society, the fine arts, and the sciences, and who saw the century plunge into the most horrible barbarisms. In the whole course of my life I had tried to secure friends for my old age. The Revolution defeated all my calculations."

If anybody was ill prepared for the French Revolution, it was Cheverny, a wealthy, amiable, sociable man, kindly, full of common sense and good feeling, but without any general ideas, accustomed to the old social hierarchy. The part of the memoirs which relates to the troubled years of the Revolution is perhaps all the more interesting as it is purely anecdotal. We are rather tired of generalities on this subject; we have had also descriptions enough of the great men of that period—Danton, Robespierre, and others. In Cheverny, who lived chiefly in his province, we find also the meanest actors in the terrible drama. The accumulation of the small facts which you will meet with in the memoirs produces a little the effect on the mind which is made by Taine's chapters on the subject of the Revolution. In fact, Taine had the manuscript of the memoirs in his hands before they were printed. He found many documents in them, especially for that curious chapter which is headed "L'Anarchie spontanée." You see in it how an old and apparently well-organized country can in a few months fall back into a state of disorganization, just as a body full of life gives after death all its organs and molecules to the earth. The French Revolution was the most extraordinary commotion of this sort; if the country had been invaded by another race, as Great Britain was invaded by William the Conqueror, it could not have looked more different in 1793 or 1800 from what it was in 1780. New fortunes, new names sprang from the ruins of old fortunes and old names; new ideas, new formulas, new modes of thinking, entered the social as well as the political domain.

Cheverny, like so many others, became a sort of stranger in his own country. He was happier than many others: he lost his fortune, but he kept his head. His estate was sold in 1801 to Germain, a banker of Paris. It belongs now to the family of the Marquis de Vibraye. Dufort de Cheverny died at Blois the 28th of February, 1802, at the age of seventy-one years. He did not live long enough to see the Revolution crowned and consolidating all its political and social conquests in the person of Bonaparte. I have searched in his memoirs for the passages which relate to Bonaparte and his family. They are very curious. On the 10th of August, 1796, he writes: "The Directory have confided to Robbé de Lagrange Madame Bonaparte, *ci-devant* Beauharnais, to conduct her to her husband, who is with the Army of Italy." "Madame de Beauharnais," he writes in September, 1796, "was separated for ever from her husband by the guillotine. She was not long, people say, in captivating Barras, one of the five kings. Barras was intimately connected with Bonaparte, and wished to make his fortune. After a year of mourning he made her marry Bonaparte, notwithstanding their difference in age. Bonaparte was only twenty-seven and she nearly thirty-three years old." At Lyons, at Turin, Madame Bonaparte was received with the greatest honors. "The Queen could not have been better received:

deputations, troops, a numerous court." "Bonaparte waited for Madame Bonaparte, and received her at the head of his staff. 'Madame,' said he, 'I am very sensible of the goodness you have shown in coming to me and making such a fatiguing journey. Ask now for whatever you please, and I will make it my duty to give it to you.' 'Sir,' said she, 'I ask that your hostages be set free.' [These hostages were Piedmontese gentlemen who guaranteed some conditions of a military arrangement made with the King of Piedmont.] Bonaparte at once gave the order." In August, 1798, Cheverny writes that Bonaparte frightens the Directory "by his head, his audacity, and his exploits"; that he was much neglected in Paris, where he played a more than secondary part. "Secretly jealous, despotic, with the dryest and most republican forms," the Government was making some project of an expedition so as to get rid of him. Bonaparte had had various plans of expeditions placed before him; he had studied them in all their details, and had chosen Egypt as his new field of battle. On the 1st of September, 1800, we read:

"Bonaparte, having happily placed himself at the head of the Government, has advanced the Revolution by more than fifty years. The cup of crime was full and running over. In a short time we shall know if we are destined to be tricolor or unicolor. Bonaparte did in twenty-four hours at Saint Cloud what all the *émigrés*, the King, the Prince de Condé, could not have accomplished with 40,000 men. He cut off the 750 heads of the hydra and concentrated the power in his own head. . . . All is so changed at the moment I write, that it seems as if the revolutionary event must have taken place more than twenty years ago. . . . The First Consul is more King than ever was Louis XIV. . . . If Bonaparte is not stopped by unforeseen events, people will be able to say of him what Bussy-Rabutin said of Marshal Turenne: 'He can rise to such a degree of glory that the glory of others will not trouble him.'"

Correspondence.

THE SEAT OF POWER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Sherman Act of 1890, under which the United States Treasury is purchasing four millions of ounces of silver per month, seems likely to furnish a curious illustration of where the centre of power under our Government really lies. So far as my observation goes, there is not a single financier or man of business of any standing in the whole country who is not opposed to it in the most unqualified manner. There is a sort of vague talk that the South and West demand it, as they are said to demand free silver; but the man, outside of a certain circle, who stands up and defends it on its own merits may be said to be an unknown quantity. All Europe is looking on in amazement that we should persist in such not, perhaps, suicidal, but at any rate absurd and injurious, folly. It is perfectly evident what persons do wish for the continuance of the Silver Act. They are the group of silver-mine owners and the other private interests who wish to keep up the price of silver, ruling members of Congress more powerfully than do either their constituents or the mass of public opinion.

If the Sherman Act remains unrepealed during this session, will it not show conclusively that the real enemy to be encountered is not silver but the lobby, and—of which there is abundant other evidence—that the question which for the future overshadows all others is

whether in this great democracy the Government is to express the will of the people or of the lobby?

In this connection it may be remarked that the chief source of information as to the condition of the national finances open to the public is the discussion in the newspapers as to the private conversations of Secretary Foster, whether in Washington or New York. Is not that a pretty business for the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States—to be running round Wall Street gossiping? And is a place where that is the only way of making his voice heard likely to command the services of great men?

G. B.

Boston, December 30, 1892.

THE MASSACHUSETTS GOVERNORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of December 22, commenting on the Panama scandal, you say: "The non-payment of members [of the English House of Commons] is one of the chief defences" against such a state of things as exists in France to-day, and you might have added, as existed here in *Crédit-Mobilier*, Pacific Railroad, and "Burn this" times. If I understand you, the inference is that since members of the Commons are not paid, the natural selection is of men who have private means enough to put them above the temptation of a "slice of a good thing." This granted, why is it not a good plan to have the Governor of Massachusetts, by law, possessed of some private means? If good for the purity of English politics, why not good for Massachusetts?

ONE OF THE 68,045 WHO VOTED "No."

FRAMINGHAM, MASS., December 30, 1892.

[The inference is not sound without making allowance for English aristocratic traditions and American democratic conditions. As we have before pointed out, the fathers who framed our Constitution were disposed to affix a property qualification to Senatorships. We cannot say how this would have worked, but, begun at that early day, it might have borne as good fruit in respect to incorruptibility as the English practice. In the course of time the Senate has become the goal of extremely rich men, who desire either the dignity of the place or the opportunity it affords of furthering their pecuniary interests; and their seats are substantially bought of their respective legislatures through the operation of the Machine. As a check, it would be useless to deprive them of their salaries; and it is not less futile, in our opinion, to exact a property qualification of a candidate for Governor, especially since by nominal transfers of real estate a law like that of Massachusetts can be so easily evaded.—ED. NATION.]

LIBERAL AMERICAN METHODISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In commenting upon the case of Prof. Davison, who has seemed to some good people to be a dangerous heretic, you remark, apropos of the report of the Committee sustaining him: "Liberalism like this would clearly be out of the question in any Methodist body in this

country, and is sufficiently striking even for England."

Now, exactly what the elastic phrase "any Methodist body" may mean, I shall not undertake to say. But I venture to think that you underestimate the liberality of a large number of representative American Methodists. You may remember that Prof. Davison addressed the Methodist Ecumenical Conference in Washington with commendable freedom, and that he afterwards, by special request, gave an exposition of his views before the most representative Methodist college in the country. I venture to believe that Prof. Davison's views are shared by a rapidly increasing proportion of Methodists in this country, and that the liberality displayed by their English brethren will appear to them the most natural thing in the world.

Very truly yours,

A METHODIST.

DECEMBER 30, 1892.

TINTORETTO'S ST. MARK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent, "B. B.," writing in correction of the statement in one of my articles in the *Century*, says that "there is no such picture in S. Maria dei Angeli [at Murano] as the 'Finding of the Body of St. Mark,' described by Mr. Stillman. That canvas, forming part of a series with the ones now in the Royal Palace at Venice, has been, ever since the days of the Napoleonic kingdom of Italy, in Milan."

I have delayed replying to "B. B.," hoping to get to Venice to examine personally the matter ere this, but have been prevented from doing so. I have finally written to a Venetian friend, whose acquaintance with the works of art there is greatly superior to my own. My mistake was in confounding, from some cause which I cannot now trace, as I unfortunately did not preserve my notes and references, the works of Domenico Tintoretto with those of Jacopo. The picture alluded to is by the former. It is noted by Boschini as one of the series, executed in part by Jacopo and in part by Domenico, of the incidents of the transfer of the body of St. Mark to Venice and disposal at the church. It is called there "The Apparition of St. Mark in the Church of St. Mark," and, my friend writes me, is there at present writing. He continues:

"In the archives I found that on the 4th of January, 1818, were consigned to the Patriarch for the Seminary 27 pictures, among which—

Tintoretto, Apparitione di S. Marco (School of S. Mark).
" L'Arrivo " "
" Sogno " "

(with three others by Tintoretto having no relation to S. Mark). Ridolfi ('Le Meraviglie') describes the pictures by Jacopo Tintoretto in the School of St. Mark. . . . None of these is at the Brera, none in the Royal Palace here."

The picture at the Brera, of which I have no recollection, has clearly nothing to do with those now (or at any time) at Murano, and the correction by "B. B." of my mistake in ascribing the picture of the younger to the elder Tintoretto gives place to a blunder much greater, unless my friend and myself are still more widely astray.

The finding of the body of St. Mark was the same subject as his apparition in the church, as the legend says that, the body having been enclosed for the greater secrecy in one of the pilasters of the church, the locality of it was forgotten, and long after was made known by a manifestation of the Saint in the church it-

self, indicating the spot in the pilaster where the body was deposited.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

FLORENCE, December 14, 1892.

COUSIN AND NIECE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The word *cousin* was still used as synonymous with *niece* in the slashes of Hanover County, Virginia, and within two miles of Jericho Mills, on the Carolina side of the North Anna River, when Hancock's Corps crossed on the march from Spottsylvania C. H. to the second Cold Harbor fight in 1864, by two first cousins *proper* of my father. I saw the slashes kinsman last in 1870, and he died, I think, a little short of 1880. The Jericho Mills kinsman I saw last in 1864; he died between that date and 1870. I am getting old myself, and a little behind time, even in reading the *Nation* of the 15th inst.; still, I do my best to give your Talladega correspondent a Roland for his Oliver.

C. J. HARRIS.

LEXINGTON, VA., December 25, 1892.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have nearly ready Bishop Hurst's 'Short History of the Christian Church,' and 'Katharine North,' a new novel by Maria Louise Pool.

Pierre Loti's 'Pêcheur d'Islande' has been adapted and annotated as an advanced text in French, and is on the point of being published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Dodd, Mead & Co. are about to issue an authorized version of Charles Wagner's 'La Jeunesse,' under the title 'Youth.' They have just brought out 'The Cloister and the Hearth' of Charles Reade in a handy four-volume edition, each volume adorned with three or four attractive photogravures of churches, portraits, and scenery. The typographical part has been well looked after, except in the matter of providing it with a fit quality of paper; and more thought and taste, too, might have gone into the manufacture of the binding. The 'Universal Atlas' of the same firm will be most prized for its series of maps of the several States of our Union, which have the scale of a single or double octavo page, with the advantage on the side of the smaller States. These exhibit the county boundaries and the railroads, and the county census of 1890. There are no indexes, but a statistical appendix gathers many details of the population, immigration, religion, rainfall, mortality, etc., of the United States and of some foreign countries.

G. P. Putnam's Sons send us the fourth series of their 'Best Reading,' a priced English and American bibliography for the five years ending December 1, 1891. The selection is of the more important works, and further discrimination is not attempted. This manual has a clear field of usefulness in the public library and in the household, and has been well maintained by the editor, Mr. Lynds E. Jones (since the first series).

Columbus, with portrait and Mr. Woodberry's sonnet to it, opens the bound volume xlv. of the *Century Magazine*; and the subject is caught up again in Mr. Van Brunt's articles on Architecture at the Columbian Exposition. To Mr. Woodberry also falls the task of saying the fitting word, in prose, about Shelley, whose centenary he has meanwhile honored in a lasting way. Besides these

features we have the conclusion of the *Coleman Stillman Old Masters*. The chief serial stories have been the not too fortunate "Naulahka," the "Chatelaine of La Trinité," and "The Chosen Valley." Nor should mention be omitted of the portrait of Roswell Smith, and accompanying tributes from his colleagues of the Century Company and in philanthropic endeavor—a man with a Columbian largeness of mind, courage in straits, and tenacity of purpose.

The local color of the Pacific Coast from Alaska southward tinges the whole of volume xx. of the *Overland Monthly* (San Francisco), as does the use of "process" engraving in place of woodcuts. There are papers on yachting and on the fisheries, on logging and hunting and staging and mountaineering, on the University of California; with a spice of fiction, verse, book-reviewing, and an occasional political article.

The bound volumes of *St. Nicholas* for 1892 impress us anew with the high ideals and attainment of a juvenile periodical which some adults that we know of are not ashamed to be caught reading. Its reduction of mere frivolity to the minimum, and its admirable withstanding of passing fashions and crazes, combine with its always unobjectionable letterpress and excellent illustrations to make it a genuine parents' aid.

Mr. F. F. Murdock of the Bridgewater (Mass.) Normal School has lately issued an 'Outline of Geography' for the special use of his pupils. It consists of a series of outline chapters on forms of land and water, weather and climate, plants, animals, population, and so on, with frequent abbreviated references to various text-books, as if slightly expanded from lecture notes. The abstracts have proved of value to teachers, although the order of subjects is open to criticism. The absence of a table of contents makes the use of the book somewhat inconvenient. As is usual in the current methods of teaching, an explanation of processes is attempted in the chapters on meteorology, but it is omitted from the chapters on the forms of the land. The correction of this inconsistency will mark a decided advance in the study of geography.

A fourth number is lately issued in the series of picturesque Geographical Readers (Lee & Shepard), by Charles F. King of the Dearborn Grammar-school, Boston, well known to teachers as the author of 'Methods and Aids in Geography.' The little book deserves high praise as a successful effort to interest and instruct children in one of the more difficult studies in our common schools. Mr. King is an expert in his method of making geography a live subject, and his books carry much of his spirit with them. The present volume, 'The World We Live In,' part 2, fully maintains the freshness and variety of its predecessors; and its illustrations, mostly from photographs, are remarkably good, considering the size and price of the book. The whole series deserves extended use as readers at school and at home—but in a plain, not a rhetorical, way.

An immense amount of authentic technical information is embraced in the volume of 'Notes on the Year's Naval Progress (Information from Abroad),' just issued from the Office of Naval Intelligence of the Navy Department. The several sections deal with ships and torpedo boats, machinery, ordnance, naval administration and personnel, electricity, naval manœuvres of 1891, armor in 1892, and bibliography. An index is supplied, and there are maps, diagrams, and other illustrations in profusion.

Kentucky claimed its share of the centennial

year, having been admitted to the Union on June 1, 1792. The Filson Club of Louisville could not be lacking in its duty, and its proceedings have been published in its generous style in a large quarto of 200 pages. President Durrett's address supplied the history of the State, and was worth being read as well as listened to. He shows that Chenoa might have been adopted from the Indians as the name of the colony, though it was passed by for Transylvania and afterwards for Kentucky (Iroquois *kentake*, prairie or meadowland, and not the proverbial "dark and bloody ground," though "it is difficult to fix a time when the Indians were not hostile to the whites in Kentucky"—and let us say, *vice versa*!). On pp. 58 and 59 are ominous lists of the members of the Constitutional Convention who voted for and against striking out the proslavery clause—the six clergymen all in the minority. The vote of Richard Taylor, father of Zachary Taylor, was unrecorded.

Economic periodicals have so multiplied of recent years that it is impossible to extend an altogether cordial welcome to any addition to their number, but it is no more than just to say that the *Journal of Political Economy*, which makes its first appearance this month from the press of the University of Chicago, takes rank at once with the best of the existing reviews. The leading article, by the editor, Prof. Laughlin, is entitled "The Study of Political Economy in the United States," and recalls the notable article by Prof. Dunbar which appeared, we believe, in the first number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. Prof. Laughlin considers that a certain improvement has taken place in the tone of economic thought and discussion since that period, indicated, among other things, by the passing of the American Economic Association from the control of the Socialistic element. It must be said, however, that he does not express any very sanguine hopes as to the future of applied economics in this country, nor do we observe that he comments upon any achievements by American economists possessing marked originality. His article is therefore cautious and subdued in tone, but highly discriminating and judicious. An article upon the recent commercial policy of France contains much that is instructive, and another upon the price of wheat since 1867 appears to be exhaustive. There is a department of notes, containing, among other matter, a rather striking communication from Mr. Edward Atkinson, showing how he "braced up" President Grant to his veto of the Inflation Bill of 1874. The book-reviews show painstaking, but are rather mediocre. Among the appendices a table is given of the courses of study in political economy in nearly all the colleges and universities of this country. The *Journal* is to appear quarterly at \$3 a year, and subscriptions may be sent to the University Press, University of Chicago.

One class of the community is in no danger of being neglected—we mean the mothers. No. 1 of *Motherhood*, a monthly magazine devoted to their interests, has just reached our table. It is published at 150 Nassau Street in this city.

Petermann's *Mitteilungen* for November contains an account of several explorations by German missionaries in the region to the north of Lake Nyassa, and a paper on the language of Schleswig, with maps showing the extent to which the Frisian language is spoken in the German Empire. There is also a brief sketch of the Danish expedition which passed last winter on the coast of East Greenland in latitude 70 degrees. The lowest temperature not-

ed during the nine months from September, 1891, to May, 1892, was in March, when the thermometer fell to 50 degrees below zero, and the mean temperature for the month was 13 degrees below zero. Very singularly, the highest temperature, with the exception of some days in May, was in February. A supplemental number contains the scientific history of Dr. Nansen's Greenland expedition. The results of the astronomical and meteorological observations are given by Prof. Mohn, while Dr. Nansen treats of the topography of the east coast, and the extent, form, structure, movement, and thickness of the inland ice, the icebergs, and the Polar current. No especial observations were made of the Northern Lights, but they were seen nearly every clear night. "A crackling noise was never heard, and in no case was the light seen between the clouds and the observer."

In the December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, it is announced that with the January number the title of this publication will be changed to the *Geographical Journal*. At the same time it will be increased a third in size, so as to cover more completely the whole field of geography. Both maps and illustrations will form a more prominent feature than in the past. The present number opens with a paper by Capt. Lugard on his African travels, differing but little from that published in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. In it he dwells upon the great possibilities of the Mau plateau, not far from the eastern shore of the Victoria Nyanza, for European colonization. This consists mainly of well-watered grass lands, admirably adapted to stock-raising operations, and, though situated upon the equator, inasmuch as it is at an altitude of 7,000 or 8,000 feet it has cold winds and a bracing atmosphere. He also discusses the interesting problem of the water supply of Lake Victoria, the few small streams flowing into it being seemingly insufficient to supply the waste from the Somerset Nile, a deep broad river, and from the evaporation over a superficial area of some 27,000 square miles.

A series of annual reports on the climate of Belgium has been issued for some years by Mr. A. Lancaster of the Royal Observatory at Brussels. The latest number, dealing with 1891, gives an interesting résumé of the conditions which determined the peculiarly cold winter at the beginning of that year—namely, a persistence of high atmospheric pressure over northern and central Europe, allowing a local cooling of the land and causing a prevalence of easterly winds, which are for Belgium what the west winds of winter are for us. The close of the cold period was marked by the falling off of the high pressure and the entrance of mild westerly winds from the Atlantic.

Largely through the exertions of Prof. A. Penck of Vienna, the Geographical Congress held at Berne last summer recommended the preparation of a uniform map of the world, on a scale of 1:1,000,000, and appointed an international commission to formulate a plan of publication. The intention of this undertaking is to present the results of exploration and surveys from all available sources on a uniform scale and in a systematic manner. Although involving great expense, the map would be of peculiar value as a standard of reference and comparison for the coming century at least.

The two latest sheets in Dr. Vogel's Map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) depict the Schwerin and Posen districts; the first forming part of Prussia's belt of small lakes, and the latter being adjacent to Poland, of which rather more is

shown than of Prussia. From the same source comes a 'Pocket-Atlas of the Ancient World,' edited by the late Dr. A. van Kampen and by Dr. Max Schneider. In addition to the usual plates there is a reduced copy of the *Tabula Peutingeriana* of the thirteenth century, now preserved, minus the first of the twelve sheets, in the Imperial Library at Vienna. The rather fine lettering of some of these maps is atoned for by a copious index.

The pretty and sensible device of a fan calendar comes to us from Fr. Jac. Andres, Boston, and may be recommended for any lady's writing-table.

The Bibliographical Society held its preliminary meeting in London on July 15, 1892, and its members in November numbered 157, six only of them being Americans and one French. The names already enrolled are of sufficient reputation in the science of books to insure stability to the society, which is started none too soon for the credit of English and American bibliography. The main objects set forth are investigations by Committees on Early Printed Books, Current Literature, General Literature, Special Bibliographies, and Book Production and Publication. The annual fee is one guinea until a membership of 200 is reached, when an entrance fee of one guinea will be asked; twelve guineas constitute a life membership.

A well-informed correspondent writes to us that the two Washington letters printed in Mr. M. D. Conway's communication in our last issue were produced in *Notes and Queries* for June 1, 1878. Copies of them were at that time given to Gen. Grant.

—The growth of legends is well exemplified in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* in Mr. John Ward Dean's account of the original "Gerrymander." He shows that the figure of the "political dragon" carved out of Essex County, Mass., in 1812, to insure a Democratic majority in the State Senate, has been attributed to Elkanah Tisdale, a miniature-painter of the time, and to Gilbert Stuart; while the notion that the "shoe-string" district (as they say in Mississippi) resembled a salamander is credited to a company at Col. Israel Thordike's in Boston, to Washington Allston in the *Centinel* office, and to G. Stuart; and, finally, the name Gerrymander is said to have been proposed by a Mr. Alsop, Mr. James Ogilvie, and Maj. Benjamin Russell. This is certainly a wide field to choose from. Mr. Dean gives facsimiles of Nathan Hale's map of the county from the *Boston Weekly Messenger*, the winged gerrymander figure from the *Boston Gazette*, and a skeleton gerrymander in *articulo mortis* from the *Salem Gazette* of April 6, 1813. His brief bibliography of the subject does not include the article on the Hare system contributed by Mr. William R. Ware to the *American Law Review* some fifteen years ago. It is noticeable that, though Gov. Elbridge Gerry has acquired a proverbial notoriety as the author of the partisan device of manipulating districts, even this distinction has been awarded to Samuel Dana, the President of his Senate, and Joseph Story, Speaker of his House till just before the measure was introduced in both houses. Mr. Dean firmly insists on the hard *g* in gerrymander as in Gerry; and in the same number of the *Register* Mr. Henry F. Waters likewise protests against jerrymander, "as our English friends call it." The pedigrees of Elbridges and also incidentally of Gearinges, Gerles, and Gerys, are illustrated in Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings," of which the chief interest, however, centres in his

ample development of the John Harvard connection, and in his demonstration that there was a colony of families from Stratford-on-Avon settled in Southwark, so that "it is not at all improbable that Shakspeare was a frequent visitor at the house of John Harvard's mother" in that dramatic quarter of London. He gives the will of John Hall of Stratford and of his daughter, Elizabeth Barnard, who was Shakspeare's granddaughter. A glimpse of Milton's connection is shown in the will of Francis Spencer. Rhode Island families rather seldom occur in the Gleanings, but there are several in this instalment.

—The last week of the year 1892 was a memorable one in the annals of educational benefactions. First came the announcement of a present of yet another \$1,000,000 for the University of Chicago, then of a legacy of \$185,000 for Dartmouth College from an almost forgotten alumnus, and, last but by no means least in educational value, a woman's gift of \$306,977 for the Medical School of the Johns Hopkins University. This final donation of Miss Garrett caps appropriately the movement begun by a committee of women in the spring of 1890 for the endowment of a great post-graduate Medical School, open "on the same terms" to properly qualified men and women. It moreover raises the Medical School Fund to the minimum endowment (\$500,000) named by the trustees as, in their judgment, necessary for the opening of a medical department of the University, and makes possible in February the announcement for October, 1893, of the terms of admission to, and courses in, a school which "will afford to the women and men of this country whose acquirements and training may enable them to enter upon its course of instruction, unsurpassed opportunities for the scientific study of medicine." The conditions attached to this latest contribution to the Johns Hopkins Medical Fund are mainly those of the original gift of \$111,300 by the Women's Committee, and of the conditional offer of \$100,000 mentioned in these columns on May 7, 1891. It is now, however, also agreed, first, that not more than \$50,000 of the \$300,000 endowment shall be put into a building or buildings, and that the chief building of the Medical School shall be known as the Women's Fund Memorial Building; second, that the school shall be exclusively "a graduate school," the donor being "entirely unwilling to contribute at any time to the maintenance of an undergraduate or partly undergraduate school"; third, that the terms of this gift, and the resolutions of October, 1890, in which the trustees accepted the Women's Medical School Fund, shall be printed each year in the calendars announcing the courses in the Medical School; and, finally, that there shall be a committee of six women (the members to hold office for life and to fill vacancies in their number), "to whom the women studying in the Medical School may apply for advice concerning lodging and other practical matters, and that all questions concerning the personal character of women applying for admission to the School, and all non-academic questions of discipline affecting the women medical students, shall be referred to this committee, and by them be in writing reported for action to the authorities of the University." This last proviso suggests the query whether women after all will be admitted on precisely the same terms as men, in view of the fact that the latter will hardly be asked to come before a tribunal other than the academic authorities.

—Mr. George W. Vanderbilt well deserved the ringing cheers with which the announcement of his princely gift to the American Fine Arts Society was received on Friday night at the dinner of the Architectural League. His original subscription of \$5,000 to the Gift Fund of the Society would have been considered by most men a sufficient piece of generosity. Not content with that, however, he bought the lots at the back of the Society's property and built the large gallery upon them, giving the Society the option of buying it at any time for its cost price, plus interest and taxes. This amount is at present \$100,000, and on Friday Mr. Vanderbilt completed the transaction by handing his check for that sum to the trustees of the Gift Fund, and with the money the Society has purchased the gallery. It thus becomes the absolute property of the Society by the best of all titles, that of cash purchase. It is only fitting that the gallery should be known for ever as the Vanderbilt Gallery, after its donor. Such discriminating munificence in the use of wealth is the best defence of property against Socialism. Few will be likely to begrudge his wealth to a man who knows so well how to use it, and none who know the work that the three societies composing the Fine Arts Society have been doing and are doing for art in this country, will envy them their splendid Christmas present.

—The annual general meeting of the Society of Authors in London is usually so uneventful and unimportant that it is scarce worth noting. But this year the fact that Mr. Besant resigned his Chairmanship and took advantage of the occasion to read a paper on the Society's career during its nine years' existence, gave the meeting unlooked-for interest. Naturally much regret has been expressed upon the retirement of Mr. Besant from the post he has held so long, but he considers it his duty, since outsiders, he thinks, have persisted in identifying him too closely with every action of the Society. He has always worked in its interest with such enthusiasm that it seems a hard thing to say that his resignation promises to prove a gain rather than a loss. Mr. Besant is nothing if not an optimistic sentimentalist, and unfortunately sentiment is not the soundest basis for a business organization. He looks upon literature as a sort of fairyland, in which he, as the good fairy, with a wave of his wand would make every book published an inexhaustible gold mine. There are to-day, he says, 200,000,000 English-speaking people; in fifty years there will be 400,000,000, all wanting to read, and, moreover, all wanting to read only good literature. The people, he declares, care only for what is good; for an example of the truth of this, look at the unprecedented (in England) success of the *Strand Magazine*. Now, this is a publication which has sent up its circulation chiefly by publishing portraits at all ages of the notoriety of the day, and articles on the Queen's dolls or pages from her journal written in her own royal Hindustani—the devices of the cheapest journalism. When a man seriously points to such a periodical as a proof of the people's literary instincts, there is absolutely nothing to be said. In the meantime, what Mr. Besant hopes may be brought about by the Society is (1) its enlargement to ten times its present numbers, as though there were not enough indifferent or worse writers already flooding the world with trash; (2) an institute or headquarters for authors; (3) a pension fund from which every one would receive a pension of right, not of charity; and (4) an

Academy of Letters. Mr. Besant also had something to say about the Authors' Conference to be held in Chicago during the Exposition. It is his opinion that by it the future interests of English authors may be largely influenced. But Americans should realize that Mr. Besant, despite his boundless enthusiasm, can hardly be said to represent the most intelligent ideas and opinions of the English literary world; nor is Mrs. Walford, who seems to be accepted as an authority, a better qualified representative.

—"Bodleian's librarian" can hardly feel a purer professional delight than in editing the facsimile reprints from "the very rarest and most interesting volumes, documents, and prints in the Bodleian Library, Oxford." These reproductions are not for the rich, but are put within reach of the slenderest purse, ranging (so far) from sixpence to one shilling and sixpence apiece. Mr. Nicholson will gladly perpetuate the series not only so long as there is a moderate profit, but so long as both ends meet. He first published last year the unique copy of the 'Ars Moriendi,' printed about 1491 from Caxton's types, and either by that craftsman or his successor, Wynken de Worde; and the very rare two-leaved pamphlet describing the solemnities ordered at Rome in 1572, by Gregory XIII., on learning "the blessed news of the destruction of the Huguenot sect" in France by the St. Bartholomew massacre. This year he gives Caxton's brief advertisement (1477) of pyes, or rules for the concurrence and occurrence of festivals according to "Salisbury use"—from one of two copies of this earliest known English broadside; and Columbus's 'Epistola de insulis noviter repertis,' from Archbishop Laud's copy of Guyot Marchand's Paris edition of 1493. This last affords an instructive comparison with the more pictorial edition lately reproduced by the Lenox Library, both as to text and as to typography. Marchand's has a larger form and indulges more freely in abbreviations, and is compressed into half as many pages. It is the third emanating from this establishment in Mr. Eames's list in his introduction to the Lenox facsimile; and he mentions only two known copies—one at Göttingen; whereas the Bodleian has two, and Mr. Nicholson speaks of three others, unless he confounds the three Marchands. It remains to state that while Mr. Nicholson does not annotate his texts, his bibliographical introductions approach annotation; and that his most commendable series may be had of Bernard Quaritch, No. 15 Piccadilly, London.

—One of the most interesting literary *trouvailles* of 1892 was the discovery, by M. Octave Uzanne, of a hitherto completely unknown manuscript journal of the early years of Victor Hugo's exile, covering the period from 1852 to 1856. M. Uzanne came upon this journal among the stock of a seller of autographs in London, and published extracts from it, with some account of its curious history, under the title of 'Journal de l'exil de Victor Hugo.' This publication naturally made a good deal of stir in the newspapers and reviews, and everybody accepted M. Uzanne's theory that the handwriting of the manuscript was that of M. François-Victor Hugo, the poet's son, and that the annotations were by the poet himself. So the matter stood till December 6, when M. Auguste Vacquerie, Hugo's literary executor, came out with a brusque article in the *Rappel*, declaring that the manuscript was not Victor Hugo's, nor Victor Hugo's son's, and that not

even the annotations were Hugo's. These statements prove to be exactly true, although they cannot be called entirely frank and candid, for M. Uzan published in the *Rappel* of the next morning a letter in which he showed that the journal was the work of Mlle. Adèle Hugo, the poet's daughter, and that the annotations, if not by Victor Hugo, were by no less a person than M. Auguste Vacquerie himself, whose handwriting is with difficulty to be distinguished from that of the author of the 'Châtiments.' "The mistake that I made at first," M. Uzan says, "is natural enough, if one remembers that Mlle. Adèle Hugo was only nineteen years old at the time when the journal was written. The conversations recorded in it treat for the most part subjects which are beyond the average intelligence of a girl. But, however that may be, the question is definitely settled; my conferences with MM. Vacquerie and Meurice leave no doubt that the 'Journal de l'exil' was put on paper by Mlle. Adèle Hugo."

THE STANFORD DICTIONARY.

The Stanford Dictionary of Anglicised Words and Phrases. Edited for the Syndics of the University Press by C. A. M. Fennell, D.Litt. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

TEN years ago Mr. J. F. Stanford bequeathed to the University of Cambridge the sum of £5,000 to defray the expense of "producing a dictionary of Anglicised words and phrases," for which he had begun to gather material. The fruits of this legacy are now before us in the 800 attractively "open" pages of the 'Stanford Dictionary'—an exceedingly handsome volume, which shows that the Cambridge University Press is not disposed to lag behind its rival at Oxford in beauty of lexicographical printing. We have never seen a dictionary page that offered its contents more readily and pleasantly to the sweep of the eye.

The plan of the work, drawn up by a committee of eminent scholars—among them Prof. Skeat and Dr. Aldis Wright—was virtually determined by the nature of Mr. Stanford's collections. The vocabulary was to embrace: (a) "all words and phrases of non-European origin found in English literature, if borrowed directly from non-European languages"; (b) "all Latin and Greek words which retain their original forms, and all Latin and Greek phrases in use in English literature"; (c) "all words and phrases borrowed directly from modern European languages excepting French"; (d) "all words and phrases borrowed from the French which retain the French pronunciation"; (e) "all words borrowed from French, Latin, and Greek, since the introduction of printing, whether now altered or but imperfectly naturalized and now obsolete." Clearly no two persons, working with this scheme in mind, would select the same words and phrases from the same books. Criticism of the contents of the vocabulary, therefore, must be largely a matter of personal opinion, and, even when indubitably sound, is perhaps rather criticism of the plan, for which the editor, Dr. Fennell, is not responsible, than of the execution, for which he of course must answer. Still, if such criticism, in dealing with omissions, bases its judgment of what the editor meant to include on an observation of what he actually did include, it will probably be proceeding on reasonable grounds.

We may fairly inquire, then, why the dic-

tionary admits into its pages *corpus Domini* but not *corpus Christi*, in *principio* but not *qui cum patre, docent et privat-docent* but not *ordinarius* or *ausserordentlicher*, *ver* and *hiems* but not *estas* and *autumnus*, *vena cava* but not *vena porta*, *dirige* but not *threnos*, *ex converso* but not *ex obliquo*, *philantia* but not *philanthropia*, *Æolus* but not *Hippotades*, *ab intestato* but not *a notioribus*, *caput mortuum* but not *grossum caput*, *quo jure* but not *questio quid juris*, *Mus. Bac.* but not *Mus. Doc.*, *melius esse* but not *melior natura*, *senarius* but not *septenarius*, *comedy* but not *tragedy*, *Chanticleer* and *Bruin* and *Reynard*, but neither *Partlet* (*Pertelote*) nor *Tyball* (*Tybert*), *extra modum* but not *extra metrum*, *portico* but not *parvis*, *dahlia* but not *tulippa*, *Judas* and *Sinon* but not *Ganelon*, *negatur* but not *nego argumentum*, *ignaro* but not *ignoto*, *fabliau* but not *lai*, *poly-syndeton* but not *constructio ad sensum*, *par excellence* but not *paraventure*, *Saint Anthony* (for his fire) but neither *Saint Julian* (for his hospitality) nor *St. Vitus* (for his dance), *mutato nomine* but not *de te fabula*, *exegi monumentum ære perennius* but not *volito vivo per ora virum*. Many other examples of partiality might be given, but we must content ourselves with two: *Thais* is admitted to a vocabulary which excludes *Lucretia*, and in *nocte consilium* has to make room for *in vino veritas*.

Nevertheless, the 'Stanford Dictionary' contains a vast deal of material, and will surprisingly seldom disappoint consultation. The articles are of all lengths, of course, and all degrees of interest. The quotations, which give the book its chief value, are at times wonderfully abundant and to the point. The references are usually exact, but now and then one finds a bare "Gower, *Confessio Amantis*" (as if that poem were not 30,000 lines long!), or a citation of "Hudibras" by book, canto, and page (edition not named). Specimens of the dictionary at its best may be seen under *mufti*, *paternoster*, *periwig*, *seraglio*, *strappado*, *supernaculum*, *tea*, *tobacco*, *umbrella*; but there are many other articles as good. Indeed, one can spend an hour far less agreeably than in merely turning over the pages and reading the illustrative passages.

In the Middle-English period, however, Dr. Fennell and his assistants appear not to have been at home. At any rate, Chaucer cannot have been among the "several hundred carefully selected works read for the purpose of collecting the literary materials upon which the best part of the work is based." This accounts not only for the loose way in which he is sometimes cited (after Richardson, indebtedness to whom is duly acknowledged), but for his not being cited at all in many pertinent places. Some slight acquaintance with his writings would have afforded earlier quotations than 1667 for *Jove*, 1588 for *Hymenæus*, 1618 for *Penelope*, 1573 for *Mercury*, 1590 for *Janus*, and so on. Among the many articles that a reading of Chaucer would have improved, we may mention *aloe*, *Argus*, *Ariete* (no quotation), *asinus ad lyram*, *causa causans*, *Clio*, *comedy*, *demoiselle*, *Elysian*, *Erinnyes*, *faun*, *Helicon*, *ignotum per ignotius*, *Ixion*, *Juno*, *Jupiter*, *Lachesis* (no quotation), *l'envoi*, *Manes*, *palais*, *palladium*, *Pallas*, *Parce*, *Phaeton*, *Pluto*, *prima facie*, *primum mobile*, *Progne* (no quotation), *Sinon*, *Styx*, *Titan*, *Trojan*, *culture*.

"Anglo-Indian" words are of course well looked after. "American" words, however, are not handled with the same discrimination.

The local *sabe*, in the sense of 'knowledge,' 'capacity,' is gravely tagged "U. S. Eng.," as if its use were national. *Corral* is poorly defined, but excellently illustrated by quotations. *Peon* is wrongly restricted to the meaning 'a laborer or a serf bound to work for a creditor in Spanish America' (if we understand the definition). The suggestion of a native etymology for *bayou* is not very happy. The use of *alcalde* for 'justice of the peace' served notice. There is some confusion under *adobe*, but this may be due merely to a want of *netteté* in defining, a fault rather common in the book. The description of a *ranche* as 'a small farm or cattle run' will cause some amusement in this country.

In etymological matters the editor was bound by the decree of the syndics of the University Press, who "decided to confine the etymology in the main to the indication of the language from which a word or phrase has been borrowed and of its native form and meaning, unless there was some fresh light to be thrown upon the derivation." But even within these narrow limits he has had some difficult questions to settle, and his decisions are not always beyond appeal. It is perhaps with regard to the relations of English to Latin and Greek and French that Dr. Fennell betrays least sureness of judgment. His treatment of *gymnosophist* will serve as an example. *Gymnosophist* is derived by Dr. Fennell not directly from the Greek, but from the "Old French *gymnosophiste*." This form of statement is doubly, if not trebly, erroneous. First, *gymnosophiste* is not Old French in any proper sense of the term. Secondly, if it were, the English word, which does not occur till the sixteenth century, would, if from the French at all, be from modern French, since sixteenth-century French is not Old French. Thirdly, the English writer who first used *gymnosophist* is much more likely to have taken it directly from the Greek than from a modern language; indeed, he may well have been unaware that it existed in French at all. Similarly, *Jeremiad* is much more likely to have been made up directly from *Jeremiah*, on the analogy of other similar formations, than to have been adapted from *jérémiade*. The dictionary contains many other examples of uncritical etymologizing in this particular. Such words as *extirpation*, *premonition*, *remuneration*, *renovation*, *repercussion*, *retribution*, might no doubt have been simply appropriated from the corresponding French forms, but many of them may more reasonably be explained as transferences from the Latin, accommodated to the model already long established for such words in English. That this model was determined by older borrowings that were from the French is, of course, not here to the purpose. Dr. Fennell is too fond of the simple formula "from the French when a corresponding French word exists." The only sound formula is far more complicated, for it must take into account a complex condition of things. Was the English author who first used the word more exposed to French or to Latin influence? Was he given to Latinizing or to Gallicizing? Was the word actually in use in French as early as in English? These are some of the questions that the scientific etymologist must ask himself and that Dr. Fennell is too apt to ignore. Similarly, Dr. Fennell shows an inclination to refer to Anglo-French some words whose first appearance in English was long subsequent to the end of the period of Anglo-French influence. In short, he has clearly in mind neither the chronology nor the multifariousness of the

workings of French upon our language. His looseness in this regard is in striking contrast with the admirable work done by Prof. Sheldon in the new Webster—work of which no feature is more noteworthy than the sure but cautious touch with which the very categories in question are handled. Doubtless the 'Stanford Dictionary' was partly in type when the new Webster appeared (1890), but even then a study of Prof. Sheldon's etymologies would have set Dr. Fennell right in many instances, and would have been of great advantage to at least one paragraph of his Introduction. The niceness of the distinctions involved should not blind us to their historical significance and scientific moment.

The redaction of so miscellaneous a body of articles as those composing the 'Stanford Dictionary' called for wide and accurate scholarship and uncommon sobriety of judgment. In general, the editor has performed his difficult task remarkably well, but there are occasional inequalities. *Hiccius Doctius* is not well defined by "pretentious humbug," but the quotations supplement the definition. *Benedicite* is sometimes written *bendiste* (e) in MSS. of Chaucer, so that the hedging "as if" is superfluous. For *veronica* the definition, "a piece of cloth on which the face of Christ is represented," is hardly satisfactory, and one would have liked a reference to Grimm. *Lucus a non lucendo* is not so often used "to represent an absurd derivation" as to ticket a misnomer. Under *salva reverentia*, *sir-reverence* should perhaps be mentioned, since room is found for *save-reverence*. *Manito(u)* is put off with a single quotation (from Robertson). *Rethor*, in the line of Chaucer given, does not mean 'an orator' but 'a rhetorician,' or 'eloquent writer.' Under *Valhalla* no mention is made of the Icelandic form. *Fedant* may be from French *pédant*, but surely *pédante* is Italian, as Bacon might have taught the editor. *À corps perdu* is not "literally 'at all hazards'" as literalness is commonly understood. The short article, "a futura memoria, Italian 'for future evidence.' Of witnesses in the Antonelli suit," raises more questions than it answers; nor is the inquirer much helped in understanding "flounces plaited à coup de vent" by the gloss "as if in a gale." Amusing for its English is the remark that *à la lanterne* was used "of the early executions perpetrated by the mob in the French Revolution, when the victims were hanged on the chains which went across the street to hold a lamp in the middle." In the case of words and phrases like *Erdgeist*, *Ewigweibliche* (translated by "ever-feminine"), *panem et circenses*, *delenda est Carthago*, a reference to their source would be quite as welcome to the searcher as instances of their subsequent use in literature. It seems odd, under *philosophia prima*, to find no reference to the 'Advancement of Learning,' and no quotation earlier than 1829. No account of the origin of *pour encourager les autres* is given, the earliest reference being to Wellington's allusive employment of the phrase in an 1804 despatch. *Litt. D.* and *LL. D.* are each defined as "the title of one of the higher degrees of Cambridge University," as if these distinctions were never conferred elsewhere. A really inexcusable blunder is that of calling the Younger Elda "a later prose version" of the poems of the Elder Elda. One is not so much surprised at meeting once more the obsolete "great-grandmother" translation of the word. For *Anglomania* Dr. Fennell gives no quotation later than 1825; for *Zeitgeist*, no quotation at all. If this indicates that he has no

acquaintance with the American variety of the former, and that the latter has never haunted his literary walks, we are inclined rather to congratulate him on his escapes than to find fault with his omissions.

In a few instances the use of modernized editions has led the lexicographer astray. The French *willade*, we are told, was "Anglicized as *e(y)liad*, *williad*, *iliad*." In the quotation from "King Lear" immediately after, *willides* is printed, though the quartos and folios have *aliads*, *eliads*, *iliads*. Again, *Cyprus* is said to be "a mistaken spelling for an English word *cypress* (e), *cypres* (s), *sympres* of unknown origin," and Milton is quoted as authority for the mistaken form. In Milton's own edition, however, the line in question reads "sable stole of *Cipres* lawn," not *Cyprus*.

Occasionally the Dictionary is didactic, or at least magisterial, in a way to remind us of the father of English lexicographers. *Gradus ad Parnassum* is the "title of a work intended to help English-speaking students to produce Latin verses, but not regarded with favor by competent teachers and critics." *Fater* is "used colloquially by persons who think *papa* vulgar and *father* too homely." *Ramoneur* is "adopted as a trade designation by some high-souled English chimney-sweeps."

We have consumed most of our space in calling attention to the weak points of the 'Stanford Dictionary'; but it will be observed that we have brought out at least one of its strong points in the process—and that is, the astonishingly varied interest of its contents. The defects to which we have adverted are mostly of slight account. As a whole, the Dictionary is an excellent book—a book to be thankful for, to buy, and to use. It enters into competition with no other lexical work in the language, but is an indispensable supplement to them all.

RECENT NOVELS.

Don Orsino. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan.

God's Fool. By Maarten Maartens. Appletons.

The Story of a Child. By Margaret Deland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Under Pressure. By the Marchesa Theodoli. Macmillan.

The Reputation of George Saxon, and Other Stories. By Morley Roberts. Cassell & Co.

MR. CRAWFORD, in his latest novel, returns to Rome and to the families whom he has already made known to his readers, the Saracinesca and their kindred. They are met now in new surroundings, although still in Rome. Sant' Ilario and his wife are here, but are middle-aged folk, and their son, Don Orsino, is the hero. Rome has undergone radical changes, for the year 1870 has intervened, and the *Zeitgeist* has occupied and is rebuilding the city. Rome, which never was ashamed to beg, is now given over to digging as well, and Don Orsino wields, instead of the stealthy rapier, the pen of the man of affairs. Old Rome is gone, and the Older Romans, about to go, sit aghast that their younger blood can stoop to an interest in real-estate speculations. Don Orsino, reared on traditions, the child of romance, in becoming an ardent business man, becomes the link which the young ever is between old and new. The author's even-flowing skill gives us a unique impression of Rome in the hour following the change—Rome of the

Romans and not of the foreigner; of the Jubilee and not of the Carnival; of the speculator and not of the priest. It was a scheme worthy of so consummate a designer as Mr. Crawford to make this external disintegrating and rebuilding process accompany his remarkable analysis of the changes that development brings about in humanity. The brain of man has altered very little since man first waxed, says Science; but his heart has undergone complicated changes, says Mr. Crawford, whose recent tendency has been to portray this transformed organ. He is evidently a disbeliever in the heart of the twelfth century at present—in the romantic passions bred of melancholy in pre-social days; he will have no more of the man who sees and loves and kills or dies. Nor is his alternative any such hackneyed creation as an Osric of the emotions, without depth, or a poly-affecting Lothario. His Orsino is a man of utmost seriousness and even of concentration. He loves a beautiful woman tenderly and undividedly. She is (temporarily) the queen of his dreams and the sweet companion of his daily shopping expeditions; he lives upon her sympathy; he loves her alike with hot heart and cool head. And what disturbs this happy passion, returned in full measure? Neither death nor jealousy; simply a little jarring inopportunities, an ill-timed absence, a business engagement, a delayed journey—and the matter is over. There is little tearing of hair, no breaking of vows; the tragedy comes solely from the incapacity of Don Orsino's heart to hold an overmastering passion, an incapacity for which no one can blame him, least of all Maria Consuelo.

With her the case is different. Mr. Crawford does not, as yet, pretend that woman's heart has progressed since the twelfth century; he causes this one to act like an old-fashioned heroine, she even going to the length of marrying a passy-faced speculator to keep him from ruining Don Orsino. Ours has been spoken of as an age

"When folk have grown too clever to believe,
And Evolution has disposed of Eve."

There is obviously, however, much more to be done in the direction of Eve, if Mr. Crawford is right as to his Adam, before men and women can meet on any comfortable terms. The process has begun, but let the women be advised to plunge still further into business careers, and to steep themselves in the concerns of the commercial, the scholastic, the philanthropic world; in time they will become incapable of any but fleeting sentiment in affairs of the heart. A type of useful, reasonable woman will arise, and the age of emotional comfortableness will have dawned. We shall read of the Maria Consuelos in romance as we now read of the ladies who had nothing to do but wear their knights' colors at tournaments, and pine for them while they were at the wars; it will be the common experience to get through life without having been, as Mr. Crawford puts it, "more than comfortably in love—and of such is the kingdom of heaven."

We know of no other who is making just the contribution to the art of fiction that this writer is, in the analysis of modern feelings or the impossibility of them; his is a real study in realism among many casualties which bear that much-abused name. In the power of presenting the atmosphere of places and the personality of his characters without triviality of detail Mr. Crawford is preëminent. His wit is abundant and always kept graciously by spontaneity. His style is marked by freedom and a masterly common sense, and is refreshingly free from mannerism. We have, in short, but

one quarrel with him, which is that his superabundant skill in writing leads him too easily into side-paths of criticism and comment, as if from sheer bravado of expression. The little essays into which he is thus betrayed, though compact and admirable in themselves, become diffuse and impeding where they are placed.

'God's Fool,' like 'Don Orsino,' is largely concerned with the snares and perils of the business world and the ghastly depths into which speculation may hurl the speculator. Mr. Maartens, however, does not treat the subject as an episode, but makes it the whole flaming reason of his book. He arraigns the world and his readers with all the wit and causticity of which his witty and caustic pen is capable, and convicts them of money-worship and consequent degradation. His *Vanity Fair* is unredeemed by any gleam of disinterestedness except among the unintelligent. The rich, it seems, cannot inherit the earth and virtue besides. In the person of 'God's Fool' we have a study (more valuable morally than psychologically, we suspect) of the attitude of unperverted Christianity towards its fellow-men. The fool, made deaf and blind by an injury received in his childhood, his mental development arrested, himself walled out from the world except from the patient few who learn to communicate with him, grows to manhood with no conventional ideas on any subject. His faithful nurse teaches him to be kind to the unfortunate, and benevolence becomes a passion with him. He learns the story of Christ and brings into a mercenary community an inconveniently primitive Christian practice. Having inherited an enormous fortune, he is a person of great importance to his family, whose temptations to use his money, lawfully and otherwise, are worked out into a story of well-sustained and absorbing interest. The incidental sketches of a sordid, loveless, money-besotted society are supremely clever. They are localized in a Dutch town, but are meant for no less wide application than wherever in the whole round world money is made and lost and hearts hardened by the process. Mr. Maartens's wit dazzles on every page; his scathing satire burns; his cynicism appalls; yet his wit is defaced by a curious addiction to puns, his satire is weakened by being too universally directed and by wearing always the militant air of one opposed, and his cynicism is maintained by too free use of the personal note, the confidential style—or, in view of the unflattering tone adopted towards his readers, one might call it, in college phrase, a style of parietal admonition. These, however, are but surface blemishes in a highly striking work by an original writer.

'The Story of a Child' is written in a gratifying vein of reaction from certain earlier books of Mrs. Deland's dedicated to the solving of unnatural moral puzzles. Not alone to these is little Ellen Dale a happy foil, but to many latter-day writings from other pens, in which a preposterous race of nondescripts passes for real children. No one can read of this child and not be touched to the inmost consciousness by the living, breathing reality of the little maid. Her head is half in the clouds, half upon the affairs of her elders; her warm little heart is full, not of schemes of reforming her grandmother or of elevating the masses, but of childish play and the reproduction in her games of the delightful fairies, princesses, or martyrs of her reading; yet so alloyed is she with human frailty that she is constantly planning her own martyrdom to punish those cruel grown people who thwart her, then forgetting her grievances or drowning

them in "complaining to her Maker," in order to "balance her naughtiness by a little extra religion." She dreams of sacrifice and forgets to dust her room; she dwells with the delicious union of a child's imagination upon nursing Betsy Thomas through the smallpox, and upon hovering, in consequence, between life and a saintly death; but decides, finally, to recover to unscarred beauty and the confusion of her enemies. She is, in a word, a very real, naturally naughty and naturally dear child, who will never be compared with Robert Elsmere, but who, we think, does Mrs. Deland more literary credit than John Ward.

'Under Pressure' is dedicated to Mr. Marion Crawford, and has certain points of interest in common with that gentleman's latest novel. It is a description of the "customs, prejudices, and virtues" of the most exclusive and aristocratic portion of Roman society, the time being that most bitter period for old Rome—the early days of United Italy. As in 'Don Orsino,' we have the patrician families with their horrified shrinking from the new and the revolutionary, which, nevertheless, being in the air, sift into their drawing-rooms and rudely dispose of their conservative schemes. The picture given of a Roman domestic interior is exceedingly interesting, with an interest in which melancholy plays a large part. The restricted lives here portrayed, dark with the shadow of ecclesiasticism, even darker with the bondage of caste, have little that is cheerful or inspiring. It is a relief when Love and Revolution enter the house together, and march to an end which we will not dull the edge of interest by revealing. The story, a few theatrical episodes excepted, is well contrived and well told; the book is worth reading, both as a story and as a chronicle of home life and manners in noble Roman circles, from an interior point of view not often employed.

Having had occasion cordially to disparage an earlier volume of Morley Roberts, we take pleasure in finding that he has mended his ways and furnished his readers with a new leaf to turn. In his present collection of stories there is not one which does not show invention at least, and there are several which were worth inventing. The opening one belongs to the least well-developed number, although founded on a good subject, that of a man, ambitious of literary fame, who buys manuscript and publishes it in his own name. "Sam Jackson's Snake" should have been omitted, but "The Troubles of Johann Eckert," a German trader caught in a terrible predicament in the South African desert, is a strong and good story, well told. So is "Exlex," the sequel to the incident related by Motley, of the condemned Dutch murderer who was given his freedom on condition of his serving as executioner to a Spaniard, with permission to kill any one who should thereafter taunt him with the execrated name of hangman. "The Captain's Wife," a sea story, is also a striking tale of horror. The author, in an evident desire to avoid the prolixity of explanation, too often slaps the reader's face with his climaxes, with the effect of being both rude and crude. He chooses his subjects ingeniously, and, when he unfolds them at his best, he deserves to be enrolled among the successful story-writers of the period.

MACAULAY AND WATER.

Social Life in England from the Restoration to the Revolution, 1660-1690. By William Connor Sydney. Macmillan & Co. 1892. FOR an unscrupulous book-maker, with an in-

finite belief in the gullibility of the public, there is no difficulty in putting together a volume on 'Social Life in England, 1660-1690.' He has only to go to some good library, lay open before him Macaulay's third chapter, and order out the books to which Macaulay refers. He will look up Macaulay's references, copy in full a number of more or less interesting quotations, and string them together by a few remarks of his own. It will be safer for him, perhaps, to shuffle up the material, so that it should not come in quite the same order as in the chapter he is following; and he will be wise to refer occasionally to Macaulay as a brilliant writer with whom he is sorry to say he cannot altogether agree. But these precautions will probably be sufficient. The general public no longer reads its Macaulay; and it will doubtless take the writer at his word if he assures it that "the marshalling of all the materials" has been "no easy task," and that he has "sought those materials in many recondite sources" (Sydney, p. 195).

This is what Mr. Sydney has done with unfaltering impudence. It needs but a glance at Macaulay's chapter, and especially at his footnotes, and then at Mr. Sydney's book, to discover this. But that there should be no doubt, Providence has allowed Mr. Sydney occasionally to become drowsy; and then, instead of dishing up Macaulay's ingredients anew, he paraphrases Macaulay's text. A few examples will more than suffice, and we will italicise some of the embellishments:

MACAULAY.

When the Duke of Norfolk came to Norwich, he was greeted like a King returning to his capital. The bells of the Cathedral and of Saint Peter Mancroft were rung, the guns of the castle were fired, and the Mayor and Aldermen waited on their illustrious fellow-citizen with complimentary addresses.

In the seventeenth century England abounded with excellent inns of every rank. The traveler sometimes, in a small village, lighted on a public house such as Walton has described, where the brick floor was swept clean, where the walls were stuck round with ballads, where the sheets smelt of lavender, and where a blazing fire, a cup of good ale, and a dish of trouts fresh from the neighboring brook were to be procured at small charge.

SYDNEY.

Whenever the earl and his suite returned from their sojourn in the capital, the citizens accorded them a welcome similar only to that of a monarch returning from victory. The custom was that the Mayor and corporation should go forth to meet him at St. Stephen's gate, that all the bells of the various parish churches should *chime forth merry peals, that the castle artillery should be discharged*, and that the whole court should attend upon him in order, within one hour of the time that he entered his abode.

In the Restoration era the secluded rural ale-house and the picturesque *hostel* were constantly to be found, many of them corresponding to those which the amiable Isaac Walton discovered on his numerous *piscatorial excursions* through England, with the cleanly swept bricked floor, with the ancient ballads stuck upon the walls, with the linen fragrant with the scent of lavender, with the open fire, the snowy curtains, and every material detail *savoring of comfort and repose*.

The next passage illustrates the trick of transposition. It comes in an account of the Post:

(1.) The porters complained that their interests were attacked, and

It is not surprising, in the least degree, to find that the great and de-

tore down the placards on which the scheme was announced to the public. . . . (2.) A cry was . . . raised that the penny-post was a Popish contrivance. The great Doctor Oates, it was affirmed, had hinted a suspicion that the Jesuits were at the bottom of the scheme, and that the bags, if examined, would be found full of treason. The utility of the enterprise was, however, so great and obvious that all opposition proved fruitless. (3.) As soon as it became clear that the speculation would become lucrative, the Duke of York complained of it as an infraction of his monopoly.

cided success of the post . . . became an eyesore in the eyes of some, or that (3) when it was fully known that the speculation was proving advantageous to its originator, the Duke of York should have complained that the monopoly which he had so long enjoyed was being infringed. . . . (2.) The system was loudly denounced by the Protestants as a contrivance on the part of notorious Papists to facilitate the communication of their plots of rebellion one to another. The infamous Titus Oates assured the public that he was convinced of the complicity of the Jesuits in the scheme, and that undeniable evidence of it would certainly be found by searching the bags. (1.) The city porters were loud in their complaints that their interests were being ignored, and long continued to tear down every placard within their reach which announced to the public the establishment of the innovation on what they deemed their rights.

But similarities such as these might be only the unfortunate consequences of a too retentive memory. It is instructive, therefore, to examine the manufacture of some of Mr. Sydney's sections. Take that on Roads. Macaulay mentions Ralph Thoresby, and gives a brief account of his experiences. Mr. Sydney thereupon looks out the reference and gives us three verbatim quotations. Two lines follow in Macaulay about Derbyshire; Mr. Sydney again looks up the reference, and gives us three pages of quotation. And then, tired of his researches, Mr. Sydney falls back on paraphrase:

MACAULAY.

The great route through Wales to Holyhead was in such a state that, in 1685, a viceroy, going to Ireland, was five hours in travelling fourteen miles, from Saint Asaph to Conway. Between Conway and Beaumaris he was forced to walk great part of the way; and his lady was carried on a litter. His coach was with much difficulty, and by the help of many hands, brought after him entire. In general, carriages were taken to pieces at Conway, and borne on the shoulders of stout Welsh peasants to the Menai Straits.

SYDNEY.

So rough was the state of the road through the Principality to Holyhead in the month of December, 1685, that a viceroy, in proceeding from London with his suite to Dublin, consumed five hours in travelling from St. Asaph to Conway, a distance of fourteen miles. Between Conway and Beaumaris he was forced to ride on horseback the greater part of the way; while his spouse was carried in a litter. With the greatest difficulty, and the assistance of many hands, their "great heavy coach" was carried after them entire. It appears that it was then customary for all carriages to be taken to pieces at Conway, and the component parts to be borne on the broad shoulders of sturdy Welsh peasantry to the shores of the Menai Straits.

If the student of Mr. Sydney's method of composition is not yet satisfied, let him look at Macaulay's account of highwaymen, and notice how, upon his mention of Nevison, Mr. Sydney takes occasion to pad to the extent of two pages and a half, and then replaces Macaulay's abstract of Duval's exploits with other two pages and a half taken from the authorities Macaulay refers to. It must be confessed, however, that the Sydneian-Macaulayese is usually better English than the pure Sydneian. It is when Mr. Sydney tries an independent flight that he talks of "the civil dudgeon which, like some giant earthquake, had shaken society to its very foundations," or speaks of ladies who were "utterly ignorant of the calligraphic art."

Yet, when he is following Macaulay, Mr. Sydney displays a certain timidity. It is in the use of more "recondite" authorities that he feels himself at ease. Such a "recondite" authority he doubtless considers Chappell's 'Popular Music'; and the consequences may be gathered from a few comparisons:

CHAPPELL.

M. Jorevin de Rocheford, who printed his travels in England at Paris in 1672, says: "The Harp was then the most esteemed of musical instruments by the English." He made this observation at Worcester, where an English gentleman, who had kindly acted as interpreter for him, supped with him at the inn, and "sent for a band of music, consisting of all sorts of instruments."

Evelyn tells us that when Sir Samuel Morland was blind "he buried £200 worth of music-books six feet under ground, being, as he said, love songs and vanity." This was a considerable sum for an amateur to spend on books of vocal music only; and as he continued to play "psalms and religious hymns on the theorbo," it may be presumed that what was interred formed but a part of his vocal library.

SYDNEY.

M. Jorevin, who visited England early in the reign of Charles II., says that the harp was then the most esteemed of all musical instruments among the English people. He made this discovery at Worcester, where an English gentleman who had kindly acted as interpreter for him supped with him at the inn, and ordered a band of music, which consisted of all sorts of instruments.

Evelyn mentions that when Sir Samuel Morland became blind he "buried £200 worth," etc. This was certainly a very considerable sum for an amateur to have spent on books of only a musical value, and, as he continued to play "psalms," etc., it is reasonable to infer that what he buried formed only a portion of his musical library.

It cannot be necessary to multiply quotations. We have already given too large a space to a worthless book; but we have done so because it is only an example of a too numerous class—the class of shoddy literature which works up again for idle and ignorant readers what has already been incomparably better done by great writers. Yet we should hardly have taken the trouble to expose this trash did it not bear the imprint of Messrs. Macmillan. Their name has hitherto been a guarantee for some sort of worthy quality in the works they publish. But this is a book which it is a discredit for a publisher of high repute to have had anything to do with.

Extinct Monsters. By the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson, F.G.S. D. Appleton & Co.

THIS work is an admirable account of some of the larger forms of ancient animal life. The rather sensational title led us to anticipate that it might prove to be an addition to the

series (much too numerous already) of semi-scientific works written by authors who modestly tell us in the preface that they have had no scientific training, and consider themselves competent to write only a "popular work." Upon opening such, we always expect to find fresh proofs that even popular works require considerable scientific training, and some critical knowledge of what to include and what to reject. In fact, the best of them have been written by some of the best-trained men, Huxley and Tyndall, for example. But in the present case our anticipation proved groundless, and we find in the author a writer of the same class as the late Rev. J. G. Wood, who shows himself thoroughly equipped for the difficult task of popularizing knowledge of the great extinct forms of Europe and America. He has been assisted by a clever animal painter, Mr. J. Smit, and the work has also benefited by the kindly advice of some of the staff of the British Natural History Museum.

The text makes little pretence to originality, except in the excellent method of presentation. Extensive use has been made of the works of Cuvier, Agassiz, Lyell, Buckland, and of Owen, whose death has just been announced; and in this country of Leidy, Marsh, and Cope. The author first gives a clear description of the history, discovery, range or distribution in space and time, and general anatomy of each of the extinct monsters. As far as possible the special adaptations to certain habits, modes of locomotion and feeding, indicated in the various parts of the skeleton, are pointed out. Then the zoological and botanical surroundings are described, and an attempt is made to give a graphic idea of the external appearance and natural environment. Here the artist aids the author, and the huge reptiles of the Mesozoic period and mammals of the American Tertiary are clothed with muscles and skin and dermal armature, and represented in their native element. Upon the whole, the illustrations are very successful. The rather dramatic style of Waterhouse Hawkins, in which these monsters are engaged in fierce conflicts, is avoided; and the animals are represented peacefully swimming, floating, or walking, as the case may be. One feature about the reptiles strikes us as probably faulty; that is, the bodies are in every case represented as very plump and well-rounded. They bear too much the appearance of the stuffed specimens of the old-fashioned museums, whereas, by analogy with modern forms, the skin should hang rather loosely upon the body in great folds, and the limbs should present a decidedly lean appearance. The rounded form of the existing alligator, for example, is given only by the dermal armature; the skin hangs upon the limbs as on the "lean and slippered pantaloon." With this exception, the illustrations of our great American reptiles, founded upon the splendid restorations published by Marsh, are extremely interesting to the paleontologist, and can be none the less so to the general reader. We see the Brontosaurus, sixty feet in length, with its absurdly small head; the Stegosaurus, thirty feet in length, with its row of great dorsal plates projecting upwards above the line of the back; the graceful sea-serpents, or Mosasaurs, seventy-five feet in length; the uncanny Ictiodactyla, or flying dragons—and our imagination is carried back to the remote past, when the peaceful farming lands of Kansas and the arid foot-hills of the Rockies consisted of great swamps and inland lakes, peopled with the most colossal forms the earth has ever produced.

The extinct mammals treated of are the Uintatherium, an ancient horned monster of Wyoming and Utah; the Titanotherium, which roamed in vast herds between Canada and the Gulf during the lower Miocene period; the Sivatherium of India; the Mammoth (*Elephas primigenius*) of Siberia and North America, and the extinct Irish elk. Here the text continues admirable, but the artist has relied too exclusively upon instantaneous photographs of the modern elephant and rhinoceros. Thus the Uintatherium is represented with the ankle structure of the elephant, whereas we know from palaeontology that its ankle and wrist joints were quite different. Two of these forms are furnished with prehensile upper lips like those of the tapir, whereas the structure of the anterior portion of the skull is wholly different from that of the tapir, and indicates that there could not have been anything in the nature of a proboscis. Well-written popular works, and this is one of them, are the gateways of science. Darwin tells us in his autobiography that it was the influence of a popular book, 'The Wonders of the World,' which impelled him to accept so eagerly the post of naturalist on the *Beagle*. We trust that 'Extinct Monsters' may similarly attract some of its readers to the serious study of the past wonders of the American Continent.

Handy-Book of Literary Curiosities. By William S. Walsh. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1892.

MR. WALSH announces the aim of this volume to be primarily to entertain. In this view its success may be conceded, and its prolixity and want of authoritativeness be excused. "The tracing of literary analogies," or the finding of parallelisms for familiar quotations, has especially engaged the editor's zeal, and proverbs and slang have next received his attention, while under a large number of general titles he has stowed away a mass of anecdote, fact, and fancy quite beyond the reach of his index of cross-references. If we know about what to expect under Anagrams or Alliteration, we could not have guessed that under Ambiguities we should find recorded the successive instructions on the face of our mutable United States postal-cards. On the other hand, one might have looked for Lowell's lines—

"Life's emblem deep,
A confused noise between two silences,"

among the parallel citations under "Eternities, Between two." In short, if one's entertainment in turning over these pages consists largely in surprises, these are of both sorts, as to what is admitted and what is omitted.

Advertising, Quaint and Curious, and the kindred rubric, Agony Column; Bulls; Errors; Vulgar; Ignorance, Humors of; Punctuation; Puns; Reviews, Curiosities of; Rhymes, Eccentricities of; Self-Appreciation; and Shibboleth, are samples of omnium-gatherum and grab-bag. American political slang is exemplified by Addition, division, and silence; Few die and none resign; I had rather be right than President; Kitchen Cabinet; and Knifing. The lowest end of the scale is reached in titles like Any other man; Before you can say Jack Robinson; How's your poor feet? Let her rip; and Put me in my little bed. Under "First catch your hare" we have the citation from Bracton, and the true meaning of Mrs. Glasse's celebrated recipe, but with a faulty quotation from her book and a mistaken allegation as to the spelling of the lady's name. The talk about *reliable* under Our Small Ignorances shows no acquaintance with

Dr. Fitzedward Hall's book on that and other English formations in -able, though the conclusion is sound that the word is sanctioned by good usage. It is the reverse of accurate to say that "when it first appeared in print, it was greeted with contempt and ridicule by pedant and pedagogue." On the contrary, Coleridge's lead in 1800 was followed almost with alacrity by the leading writers of the next two generations. As Dr. Hall has shown, it was a favorite word with the *Saturday Review* itself up to the time when that journal began the ridiculous crusade against it. In a matter nearer home (for *reliable* is not an Americanism), the short and not unfriendly article Abolitionists contains several historical misstatements. Futile are the remarks on "No great shakes," an expression accounted for with a "probably," and unillustrated in use, which is much older and more reputable than is commonly supposed, on both sides of the Atlantic.

It remains to say something about the entries, which are as a rule not strictly alphabetical, but arbitrary, so that, for instance, Henry Clay's high-sounding but really immoral dictum quoted above must be sought not under "I" but under "Right," although it might just as well have appeared under "President." The proof-reading merits praise for its accuracy, and we have observed but a single mischance of the types—on page 937, where the first two words of the Greek line are run together. Not to be commended is the absence of catchwords at the top of the page, since many of the articles fill several pages. We bid good-bye to this medley by saying that it could easily have been dispensed with, but that we prefer to have it rather than to part with it, for occasional reference.

General Taylor. By Oliver Otis Howard, Major-General U. S. A. [Great Commanders.] With portrait and maps. D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. xiii., 386.

THE biography of Zachary Taylor is not one of very striking incident, nor can his military career be called great without a liberal use of the word. It is the story of a brave and honest man who did faithful service to his country in all the grades of military rank from subaltern to general. He served on the Indiana frontier against the Indians in the war of 1812, in the Black Hawk campaign on the Mississippi, and in the Seminole war in Florida. The culmination of his career as a soldier was in the war with Mexico, where he proved himself to be a competent leader of a small but independent army of about ten thousand men. He was then elected President, and his sudden death in the early part of his term has always given pathetic interest to his story, especially as it was also associated with critical events in the political history of the country.

Gen. Howard has brought together the available material for a detailed examination of his military life, and, by personal visits to the battle-fields of Mexico, has been able to make the history of the battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey, and Buena Vista both interesting and intelligible to the ordinary reader. In this the maps are of great assistance, and the operations on this line in the Mexican contest are put in satisfactory form. The portion of the book which relates to Taylor's Presidency is subordinate, and does not seem to be more than a sketch of public affairs in their relation to his personal life and influence. It is in accordance with

the feeling and custom of the army that a high laudatory tone pervades the book, for the officers of the Mexican war who did their duty have always been heroes to their successors in our army, small as was the actual scale of their operations as compared with that of the great Rebellion. The reader will sympathize in large measure with this tone, and will find the biography a welcome addition to the military history of the country.

Empire and Papacy in the Middle Ages: An Introduction to the Study of Mediæval History for use in Schools. By Alice D. Greenwood. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THIS little book is one of those numerous bits of work, hacked out by cheap labor to take a place in a "series," which are the bane of our modern educational literature. Why it should appear in a series of "Science Text-books" it is hard to see, for it is not a text-book and there is no science in it. It is a mere running summary of the history of 1,000 years in 200 pages—a task to be attempted with any hope of success only by the ripest scholarship and the most skilful literary touch. The problem of such a book is to select the telling things and to hold the reader's attention to the great lines of development. Especially are these qualities called for in a book addressed to beginners; in the present case they are conspicuously lacking. The impressions as to race, geographical development, growth of institutions, and the movement of politics which a young reader would get from this book could not be other than vague and confusing. The English of the author is always weak and at times amazing. The old, vicious habit of making all history turn upon the good or bad humor of kings and princes reappears here through a thin disguise of scholarship, and obscures the actual causes of great events. Two little maps in black outline do not add to the usefulness of the book. The parallel table of mediæval monarchs is useful, but even here the fatal incapacity of the author is betrayed by the designation of seven popes, including one with whom Hildebrand had nothing to do and another who represented everything that was hostile to him, as "patrons of Hildebrand!"

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Atkinson, W. The World without a Nation; or, The Universe as a Whole. Rand, McNally & Co. \$1.
Brodick, Harold. The Son of Man. 2 vols. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Brown, J. H. Poems, Lyrical and Dramatic. Ottawa: J. Durie & Son.
Dietz, Prof. H. Italie-Espagne. [Les Littératures Étrangères.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Norris, W. E. His Grace. U. S. Book Co. \$1.25.
Owens, Mrs. John E. Memories of the Professional and Social Life of John E. Owens. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. \$2.50.
Sergeant, Lewis. John Wyclif. [Heroes of the Nations.] Putnam. \$1.50.
Shakespeare's Twelfth Night. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Sydney, W. C. Social Life in England from the Restoration to the Revolution, 1660-1690. Macmillan. \$2.50.
Tait, J. S. My Friend Pasquale, and Other Stories. Tait, Sons & Co. \$1.
Tait, J. S. Who is the Man? A Tale of the Scottish Border. Tait, Sons & Co. \$1.25.
The Great War of 189—. London: W. Heinemann.
The Overland Monthly, July—December, 1892. San Francisco: Overland Monthly Publishing Co.
The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers from the Spectator. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Walford, Mrs. L. B. Twelve English Authoresses. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.60.
Ward, Mrs. H. O. Social Ethics and Society Duties. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Ware, William. Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. \$2.50.
Watson, W. Lachrymæ Musarum, and Other Poems. Macmillan. \$1.25.
Wright, Thomas. The Life of William Cowper. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnam. \$5.

A Manual of Physics.

Being an Introduction to the Study of Physical Science. Designed for the Use of Higher-Grade Students. By WILLIAM PEDDIE, F.R.S.E., Assistant Professor of Natural Sciences in the University of Edinburgh. Large 12mo, 514 pp. With numerous diagrams. Cloth, extra, \$2.50.

SOME BRITISH COMMENTS.—"A treatise deserving of the highest praise. . . . It covers an extent of ground covered by no existing text-book of applied mathematics. . . . The treatment is sound and scientific."—*London Lancet*. "The chapters on general physics are especially interesting. We may instance those entitled 'Matter in Motion,' 'Properties of Liquids,' 'The Constitution of Matter,' and 'The Ether,' as containing information usually sought for in vain in text-books."—*Science and Art, London*. "Dr. Peddie's Manual is both up to date and complete in its mathematical proofs, which are made simple without being deficient in intermediate space."—*British Medical Journal*. "Characterized by an accurate scientific spirit. I know no book which would fill its place."—*Prof. Arnold, Westminster School*. "The chapter on 'Contours,' and the use made throughout of the principle of dynamics are particularly instructive. The book is well balanced in all its parts."—*Prof. C. G. Knott, Imperial University, Japan*.

SOME AMERICAN COMMENTS.—"The selection of topics is judicious, and the arrangement is well suited to secure clearness, compactness, and a good general survey of the subject of physics."—*Prof. C. W. Wright, Yale University*.—"First-rate book for advanced students."—*Prof. T. W. Stratton, University of Chicago*. "I am using Peddie's 'Physics' in one of my advanced classes and like it much."—*Prof. S. T. Moreland, Washington and Lee University*. "Prof. Peddie treats his subject in a clear, simple, and scientific manner. I find his work of much service."—*Prof. C. H. Hutchison, Bowdoin College*. "I rate this work very high, and consider it a very admirable text-book for students in an advanced course."—*Prof. W. Le Conte Stevens, Rensselaer Institute*.

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ANDERSEN'S MARCHEN. With Notes and Vocabulary by Prof. O. B. Super of Dickinson College. In Press.
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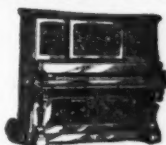
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 12, 1893.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON has done well to extend the scope of the Civil-Service Law so as to bring within its operation all free-delivery post-offices, of which there are 601, instead of only the 53 which have as many as 50 employees apiece, the number of persons affected by the change being estimated at more than 7,000. The employees of the Weather Bureau elsewhere than in Washington, between 100 and 200 in all, are also put on the classified list. The only criticism upon this action is that it was not taken at the beginning, instead of the end, of Mr. Harrison's term.

The caucus of Republican Senators on Thursday appears to have agreed, in the words of a prominent member of it, "to do as little as we possibly can" during the remainder of the session. This displays a novel view of public responsibility. These Senators know and admit that legislation on subjects of the highest national concern is urgently desired by the people, yet they propose to stifle it. One exception they do make—"sanitary legislation"; that, they say, they are not disposed to "ignore." But why should they not ignore the popular demand for a national quarantine as well as that for financial and tariff legislation? Not one of these Senators had a "mandate" from the people, at the time of his election, on the subject of "sanitary legislation." Why should they not be as stubborn in blocking the popular will in that matter as in the far more vital measures relating to the currency and public taxation? But, say these sticklers for political courtesy, it is not for us to take any responsibility, and we leave everything to the incoming Administration. But this is the most transparent nonsense, and is proved to be so by the determination arrived at by the caucus to strain every nerve to retain control of the Senate after March 4. They thus say in one breath that legislation is urgently required, that it is not proper for them to touch it at present, and yet that they mean to make it impossible for anything to be done in the future either. Pope Pius IX. was never guilty of so futile and ridiculous a *non-possumus* as this. But we do not believe this attitude of lumpish obstruction can be persisted in if the Democratic Senators do their duty. It is within their power to hold the noses of the Republicans to the grindstone, and they ought to do it. It is one thing to agree in a secret party caucus to disregard the popular will, and quite another to do it in an open yea and nay vote.

The report of the House Committee on Banking and Currency in favor of a repeal of the Sherman Silver Purchase Act is the most encouraging step in either branch of Congress since the passage of the Bland-Allison Act in 1878. True, the Committee's recommendation embraces the coinage of the bullion already purchased under the Sherman Act. This is, except for the cost of minting, in no sense a harmful step. It makes no difference economically whether that bullion is coined or uncoined. Its sleep will be equally sound in either form. It will occupy but little more room in the shape of dollars than in the shape of ingots. In the other branch of Congress, also, the signs are encouraging. Senator McPherson's speech was on the right track in every way, but especially in the line of holding the Democratic party up to the text of its platform, which calls for the repeal of the Sherman Act in no doubtful terms. This clause of the platform, as Mr. McPherson convincingly showed, brought Mr. Cleveland more than 100 electoral votes that he could not otherwise have received. The resolution, or amendment to the McPherson resolution, offered by Senator Aldrich, is worthy of all acceptance. If it indicates what we have to expect from the Eastern Republicans when this fight becomes hot, it is highly encouraging. It affirms the purpose of the United States to maintain an adequate gold reserve for keeping all kinds of currency at par with the best kind, and expressly authorizes the President to replenish the reserve whenever necessary by selling the bonds described in the Act of July 14, 1875 (the Specie Resumption Act). It also authorizes the President to suspend the purchases of silver bullion whenever he may think it necessary to do so, and it stops them absolutely after the 1st of January next, unless in the meantime an agreement shall have been reached for international bimetalism. If the Republican Senators from the States east of the Missouri River will stand by the Aldrich resolution, there is a very good prospect of its passage at the present session.

Congressman Bynum thinks that there is no prospect of a repeal of the Sherman Silver Law unless the Bland Allison Act of 1878 is restored. In the event that the opponents of the Sherman Act will offer the latter act as a compromise, he feels confident that it would be accepted. The reason why the silver men prefer the Bland Act is that it recognized silver as a money metal by coining the bullion purchased by the Government into standard dollars, whereas the Sherman Act treats this bullion as pig-metal, and issues Treasury notes against it redeemable in gold. There is no doubt that the Sherman Act has an educating

effect quite different from that of the Bland Act. People do not generally understand the issue of circulating notes against pig silver, and many persons are asking why they might not be issued against pig-iron as well. Very true. They might better be issued against pig iron, because that could be taken out and sold at any time to redeem the notes with. This educating influence is not to be bargained away lightly. We think on the whole that the Sherman Act can be endured better than the Bland Act, especially when we consider the redemption clause introduced into it which operates as a mandamus on the Secretary of the Treasury to keep all kinds of money at par with gold.

Senator Vilas put a black mark on the Anti Option Bill on Thursday when he asked Senator Washburn if he was willing to make it applicable only to gambling contracts, *i. e.*, where there is no intention to deliver the property, but only to pay differences. Mr. Washburn declined to do this, because of the difficulty of establishing the intention of the parties. Then Mr. Vilas came down on the bill with a vengeance as an unconstitutional measure, as an attempt to deprive citizens of a right to trade in the products of the country, because, forsooth, some other people are liable to gamble. This is such a monstrous proposition that it needs only to be stated in this way to be condemned. Although Senator Sherman skulked, and acknowledged that he did so, when the question was put to him in this form, it is gratifying to find some Senators who have sufficient backbone to vote as they believe, and not as some ignorant people believe who write letters to them from the rural communities of their States. There is nothing more humiliating in Mr. Sherman's public career—not even his letter affirming the legality of paying the bonds with greenbacks—than his announced intention to vote, in deference to the opinions of a certain class in his State, for what he said as plainly as possible was a bad measure and would not accomplish the object in view.

In the course of Senator Aldrich's speech on McKinley prices last July, he asserted that, while in this country prices had declined between June, 1889, and September, 1891, about 0.75 per cent., in England they had risen 1.9 per cent. No one was able to get him to give his authority for this statement, and the fair presumption that his authority was his own unregulated imagination has now become a certainty through some tables published in the *London Bankers' Magazine* for November, 1892. In these Mr. A. Sauerbeck, who had previously worked out the scale of British prices from 1846 to 1885, brings his in-

vestigations down to date. His base line of 100 is the average of the prices for the years 1867-'73 and the relative figures for the six years following 1885 are, respectively, 69, 68, 70, 72, 72, 72. Thus it appears that prices were stationary instead of rising at the time to which Mr. Aldrich referred. Mr. Sauerbeck has also figured out the tendency of prices during the first nine months of 1892, and his results show a steady decline from 70 in January to 66.8 in September.

A morning paper has taken the trouble to get from Pension Commissioner Raum a statement that the outcry against fraudulent pensions consists of the "bald inventions of the enemies of the pension system." The absurdity of all charges against the "system" becomes apparent at once when we consider that no pension can be granted except on the certificate of the Secretary of War, for, says Raum—

"The Secretary of War is not only the custodian of these records, but he is the judge of the question of the service of the soldier and of his honorable discharge; and no man can have a pensionable status in this office for an alleged service that is not certified to by the Secretary of War, or upon a discharge that is not verified by the same authority."

So, in the case where a man was drowned while wading across a stream in Georgia, and a pension was applied for and obtained by his widow on the ground that his constitution was so undermined by military service twenty-five years ago that he could not make head against the current, would the Secretary of War be bound to be acquainted with this state of exhaustion and the cause of it, constituting "a pensionable status," or would he merely know that somebody of that name once served in the army? There was a case discovered in Maine a few weeks ago, where a man was drawing a pension who had never been in the army at all. Somebody of the same name had been in the army and had died ere a grateful country could reach him through any of its eagle-eyed claim agents. So his namesake stepped in and saved the honor of the nation by applying for the pension himself, and was not prevented from getting it by any gift of omniscience on the part of the Secretary of War.

The settlement of the disputed electorship in Oregon made the actual division of the Electoral College clear for the first time since the ballots were cast, almost two months ago. The Supreme Court decides that one of the three votes from that State belongs to the Populist candidate, who was supported by the Democrats, against the Republican claim that there was some technical irregularity in the matter which ought to defeat the plain will of the majority of the voters. In three other States there is also a division of the electoral vote, Michigan, under the district system, choosing nine Republicans

and five Democrats, while the Democrats get one member of the college from Ohio and the Republicans one from California. In Ohio there was blundering by members of both parties in marking the first name on the ballot, by which the Democrats profited more than their opponents, while in California one Democratic candidate for Elector was cut on personal grounds by enough Democrats to let a Republican slip in, although the rest of the ticket won by from 200 to 650 votes. This is the second time such a thing has happened in California, one of the Hancock Electors in 1880 having been scratched for similar reasons by enough Democrats to allow the choice of a Republican. If the contest in either 1880 or 1892 had been as close as in 1876, the plain choice of the people of the whole country as between the two parties might have been defeated by the action of a few hundred voters in one State, who were actuated by personal hostility against a man whose only part in the election could be to cast a purely formal vote in the electoral college. Such a risk shows the peril which inheres in this system of choosing Presidents.

Cleveland has in all 277 electoral votes, Harrison 145, and Weaver 22, a majority for Cleveland over both Harrison and Weaver of 109. There has been nothing to compare with this since Grant's sweep in 1872, when he had 286 of the 366 electoral votes, as there had been nothing to compare with Grant's record in 1872 since Pierce obtained 254 of the 296 votes in 1852. The contrast with 1872 is most marked when the Southern States are left out of the account. Twenty years ago Grant carried every State in which slavery had not existed—21 in all. This year Harrison lost of these 21 Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Kansas, Nevada, and California—without counting the stray votes against him in Oregon, Ohio, and Michigan. In 1872 the Republican candidate received every one of the 228 electoral votes belonging to the Northern States. In 1892 the Republican candidate in those same States (leaving out of the account the seven States since admitted to the Union) received only 130 out of the 261 electoral votes to which they are now entitled.

The Commissioners appointed last year to report amendments to the revenue laws of this State have made a brief but excellent preliminary report. This is a recommendation that all revenue for State purposes be collected from certain specific sources such as corporations, inheritances, licenses, etc., dispensing altogether with the machinery of assessment of real and personal property, and relinquishing these to the counties and municipalities to do as they please with. This is a step in the right direction and a movement towards peace and quietness in this trouble-

some matter. It is now for the first time within reach of the State, as the debt has been paid off and as no tax for general purposes was levied last year. For those who do not ordinarily keep the run of such things, it may be well to mention that the State collections are of three kinds, viz., for general purposes, for canals, including canal debt, and for schools. The canal debt having been eliminated, the cost of maintenance of the canals might properly be included in the tax for general purposes. Then the tax for all State purposes may be easily collected from specific sources, as that of Pennsylvania is, with the difference, however, that we need not have, as Pennsylvania has, a State tax on personal property. All steps towards tax reform should be directed towards ridding the community of this tax, not because it is unjust *per se*, but because it cannot be justly collected, and because its burdens fall exclusively upon a few extra-conscientious people and upon decedent estates in the hands of the surrogate. This is the universal testimony of tax commissions. Yet there is nothing that legislators cling to with more frenzied zeal than the general property tax. It is possible for the State proper to dispense with taxes on both real and personal property. Such a reform will dispense with the State Board of Equalization, and we shall hear no more of the shifting of burdens from the interior upon the broad shoulders of the city through that agency. Whenever the system suggested by the Commissioners goes into effect, New York city will pay as much in proportion as she does now or is likely ever to pay under the existing method of equalization, but she will pay it without any sense of injustice, and this is a weighty matter in itself.

Gov. Flower's recommendation that all of the State's pecuniary contributions to agriculture be turned over to Cornell University, with power to apply the same in such manner as the Trustees and Faculty of that institution may devise, is excellent. It ought to be carried into effect without delay. The agricultural disbursements from the State Treasury, except the portion specifically set apart as premiums for agricultural fairs, have become as distinctly a part of the "spoils system" of politics as the work on the canals or the appointments of wardens in the State prisons. When the work of getting delegates for Mr. Hill's snap convention was in progress, one year ago, one of its most noticeable features was the misguided zeal of the Dairy Commissioners' agents in the various counties. These fellows were earning their bread and butter by working for Hill. This was the only kind of butter they were acquainted with or were expected to concern themselves with. The Dairy Commission was started with an appropriation of \$10,000 for the purpose of suppressing oleomargarine. The expenditure has grown

to \$100,000 per year, while the fight against oleomargarine is not a whit more effectual than it was in the beginning. The Governor mentions some "intelligent suggestions from official sources with regard to the care, feeding, and breeding of cattle." No such suggestions, we venture to say, have ever come, or ever will come, from the "heelers" who draw stipends as Dairy Commissioners' agents in this State. It is extremely doubtful whether any portion of the \$300,000 that the State expends nominally on agriculture is really a benefit to that branch of industry. Whether it is or not, it is quite certain that Cornell University is the only well-equipped agency for applying the money to the end for which it is ostensibly appropriated.

The formal verdict of the New York Presbytery in the Briggs case, as agreed upon on Monday, lacks something of entire frankness. It expressly denies "approval of the critical or theological views" of the accused Professor, yet is forced to say that he is "fully acquitted of the offences alleged against him." But if he is fully acquitted, then he has the "approval" of the Presbytery in the only sense in which they were called upon to give it—that is, in declaring his views not to be heretical. They were not asked to say whether they individually agreed with him in all respects, but whether his views, as published, were consistent with the standards of the church. In deciding that they were consistent, they officially approved them, and there was no reason for letting Mr. Facing-both-ways appear to deny the fact in the official verdict. We suppose the qualification was put in out of regard to those alarmed conservatives who predict that the denomination is going over to rationalism. But this very meeting of the Presbytery showed that the Presbyterian Church contains another class whose sensibilities must also be consulted—men of tender consciences who refuse to be put into a false position by ecclesiastical shuffling. Dr. Clark, one of the oldest and most honored pastors of the Presbytery, withdrew on the ground that he had been deceived in regard to the strictness of subscription required of a Presbyterian minister, and that the decisions of the Church had destroyed the liberty which he supposed he had the right to enjoy. This is the best commentary on the attempt of the Committee who drew up the verdict to stave off an irrepressible conflict with gentle words and unmeaning distinctions.

If a bitter Catholic controversy is to be precipitated on the country on the heels of the Briggs trial, as that followed the Andover troubles, more people than ever will be disposed to take to the woods. When an infallible Pope finds it as impossible as a locally independent church to keep things running smoothly, it begins

to look as if any ecclesiastical system would find human nature too much for it. So far, it is true, the greater part of this immense Catholic "conspiracy," as some papers are calling it, has been blown up in the froth of their own columns, but if the remarks attributed to Archbishop Sattoli on Sunday are not pure forgery, it cannot be denied that affairs are somewhat critical. For a Legate of the Pope to characterize a document, endorsed by the Archbishop of New York, as "ignoble," "vile," "reprehensible beyond expression," and filled with "cowardly malice," is not exactly an invitation to join in chanting, "Behold, how good and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity!"

It used to be said that the French Canadians who came to this country for work generally returned to their own land after they had acquired what would be for them there a competency. But this tendency appears to have been checked of late years, and in many parts of New England the immigrants of this class are settling with the evident intention of staying. A report from Woonsocket, R. I., shows that the French Americans of that town have within the last three years increased their real estate and personal property to the extent of over \$300,000, and Woonsocket seems not to be exceptional in this respect. It is not many years since New Englanders generally viewed the French Canadians with distrust, if not alarm, but we observe that the *Worcester Spy*, a representative journal, has now reached a different conclusion as to them. "If," it says, "all those who have come to this country in the past had turned to with such a will to win success, and had entered into the spirit of the institutions of the country, as have the great body of these men and women who have come down to us from the North, the United States would not now be discussing the advisability of putting up the bars because of inimical foreign immigration."

Gen. M. M. Trumbull publishes in the *Chicago Open Court* an interesting letter which he received from Earl Grey last summer, giving the history of Peel's abandonment of the idea of "seeking for what is called reciprocity from foreign nations when we admit their produce to our markets." Earl Grey says it was Ricardo who knocked this out of Peel's mind:

"The addresses condemning this proposal which he moved in 1843 and 1844 were introduced by speeches of first-rate ability, and produced a very remarkable effect. He showed conclusively that it would be impossible to make any effectual progress towards freer trade while the policy of insisting upon reciprocity was adhered to, and that this policy had for its base the false notion that formerly prevailed among commercial nations that it was their interest to secure what was called a favorable balance of trade."

The Earl says he narrowly watched Sir

Robert Peel while these speeches were being delivered, and saw him visibly wilting under their power. So certain was he of this that he said to Ricardo at the time: "Though we have been counted out, you have gained your object, for I am much mistaken if you have not converted Sir Robert Peel." Sure enough, after those debates, Peel never renewed his attempts to obtain concessions from foreign nations before reducing duties on imports, and was never influenced afterwards in lowering customs taxes by the fact that other countries did or did not admit British goods on favorable terms. In 1846 he openly and emphatically insisted that this was the true policy. Ricardo's argument is just as irresistible to-day for Americans as it was then for Englishmen; but the difficulty is to find a statesman nowadays of Peel's open mindedness.

All attempts to account for the Panama Canal money spent in this country, said to have been upwards of \$2,000,000, have failed. Mr. Thompson of Indiana, ex-Secretary of the Navy, answers for his own salary of \$25,000 per year, but nothing more. This would account for not more than \$200,000 for the whole period. Mr. Appleton of Boston answers for a smaller sum paid to himself for engineering and other services of a legitimate nature. Nobody else has answered for anything. Yet it is known that a very large sum was spent in the United States, over and above what was paid for the Panama Railway shares. It would be interesting to know what use was made of this money. It is to be hoped that the Paris investigation will throw some light on this dark subject. When the exact amount of the American fund is disclosed, it may be worth while for our Government, as an act of international comity, to find out what direction it took.

Word comes from Cuba that the Autonomist party, or Home-Rulers, have determined to take part in the coming election of Deputies to the Spanish Cortes. For some time they have chosen to emphasize their disgust with the government of the island by refraining altogether from voting. But a part of their demands has already been granted by the new Ministry in Spain, in the shape of a considerable extension of the suffrage, and they now propose to express their gratitude by trying to elect representatives to go to Madrid and threaten the Government with all sorts of direful things unless Cuba is allowed to manage her own affairs. There is no great chance, however, that they will be able to make much of a showing at the polls. Indeed, it is shrewdly suspected that the new Spanish Administration has made a show of liberality in Cuban matters precisely for the purpose of getting the Autonomists to stand up and be counted, and thus become ridiculous.

THE ALLEGED APPRECIATION OF GOLD.

IT WAS Mr. Balfour, we believe, who estimated, in his recent speech in Lancashire, that gold had appreciated on the average 1 per cent. a year for the last thirty years. Let us assume this to be correct, and let us ask who has been hurt by it and who has been helped by it.

Taking first the case of the majority in many of our modern societies—those who depend for support upon their wages and salaries—it is clear that such an appreciation of gold must have helped them. A man who has worked for the last thirty years at a dollar a day finds that his wages, compared with their original value, have become a dollar and thirty cents a day. It may be said (and it may be true) that if the standard of value had not varied, he would now be getting \$1.30 in that standard, but it is undeniably true that this figure would have been attained only by successive rises, and that in every case the rise would not have been obtained until after it was earned, the employer profiting in the interval. Probably in many cases the rise would not have occurred till long after it was due, for working people know little about monetary science, and those who were at work during the civil war speak regretfully of the high wages they got then, although for the most part their real wages were lower than before or since. A nominal lowering of wages is to these people more to be resisted than the real lowering caused by higher prices, and it admits of no doubt that, so far as the rate of wages depends upon human volition, laborers will protect their interests better when money is appreciating than when it is depreciating. Those who are concerned for the laboring classes, therefore, will not be disposed to substitute a cheaper money for gold in the payment of wages.

It follows that to the extent to which those receiving wages have benefited by the appreciation of gold, those paying wages have lost. Altogether the greatest losers in this way have been the great transportation and manufacturing corporations. These bodies receive little sympathy and perhaps deserve no more than they receive. However this may be, few persons will maintain that gold should not be the standard because its use compels our railroads and industrial trusts to endure a steadily increasing burden in the payment of wages. The class of capitalists is as a rule the best able to look out for its own interests, and it certainly needs no protection against such an insensible appreciation of gold as 1 per cent. a year. It might facilitate the operations of our captains of industry could they know that prices would remain the same, but the danger arising from so slight an annual fall would disorder few of their calculations.

The third great industrial class, that of the landlords, remains to be considered. This class is perhaps, nowadays, little more

popular than that of the capitalists, but in this country the enormous number of freeholders renders it dangerous to denounce them. In so far as they have rented their lands for long terms at a fixed money rent, they are the gainers by falling prices and their tenants are the losers. But in this country long terms are extremely rare, and the loss of one per cent. a year for a short period would not be felt as a burden by most tenants.

According to economic theory, these classes exhaust the population of the economic world, but in common parlance there remain two others, the debtor class and the creditor class—the one interested in the depreciation of the standard of value, the other in its appreciation. These classes have never been scientifically defined, but it is possible to state their species. The debtor class must obviously be composed of solvent and insolvent debtors—of those who have property sufficient to enable them to pay what they owe, and of those who have not. But insolvent debtors do not seem to be greatly affected by fluctuations of the standard of value. As they cannot pay their debts, it makes no difference to them whether they are a little more or a little less. In the case of solvent debtors it is necessary to consider the nature of the property which is the real security for the money that they have borrowed. Here we find that where it is personal property, as is to a great extent the case of men in active business, the period of credit allowed is very short. Most promissory notes and loans upon collateral are for days or months rather than years, and the appreciation during such brief periods is altogether immaterial. If it is found to be burdensome, these people are entirely able to protect themselves by reducing the rate of interest, or contracting their business if it does not return them a satisfactory profit upon borrowed capital.

There remains the class of borrowers upon real estate, unquestionably a very large class, many of whom are well to do, many, especially farmers, not having large resources. But even in their case it is to be remembered that in the first place loans upon mortgages made by individuals are almost always for not more than five years, oftener for three or under, so that the loss by the appreciation of gold is limited in duration. In the second place, it is probably the case, certainly the case if the census returns are trustworthy, that real property has appreciated much more than gold during the last thirty years. Those who have borrowed money to buy real estate with have, therefore, upon the whole been favored by the general course of prices, and as a class have made more than they have lost by the appreciation of gold. And in the third place, the rate of interest upon capital has greatly fallen during recent times, so that borrowers have been able to renew their loans upon extremely advantageous terms, gaining more in this way than they have

lost by any enhancement of the standard of value. Undoubtedly there are many exceptions to these general rules, but it cannot be denied that upon the whole owners of real estate have in this country obtained so much "unearned increment" that it does not become them to complain of their relatively insignificant losses through the appreciation of gold.

Turning now to the creditor class, what has been their lot? They have seen the rate of interest upon their capital fall nearly one-half within the recollection of the present generation. If they are receiving a slight increase of return owing to the appreciation of gold, it is less than they have otherwise lost, and they clearly have not fared so well as the debtor class. There seems to be little equity in trying to deprive them of this slight gain for the benefit of classes that have made much greater gains. Upon the whole, it does not seem difficult for any man of common sense to satisfy himself that the outcry over the appreciation of gold is altogether unreasonable, and that it is juster and safer to let matters go on with a gold basis than to disorder everything by listening to the numberless schemes urged by bimetalists and silvermen.

No reference has been made to borrowers for very long terms of years, because such borrowers are exclusively governments and great corporations. Such borrowers have undoubtedly had to pay the penalty of taking their chances for such prolonged periods. The game has gone against them and in favor of their creditors, but it might have been the other way. In any case the burden of Government debts has small concern for us, since ours, both national and State, are so nearly paid off. As to railroad corporations, their debts are falling in all the time, and each time that one comes due the option of renewing it or not, and the terms of renewal, are in their own hands, leaving nothing for them to complain of. The same is true of the debts of municipalities.

If we are committed to bimetalism, the considerations presented here are sufficient to show that it is because of an ignorant outcry and a deluded sentiment, and not because of any injustice that has resulted or that will result from the exclusive use of gold as a standard of value.

THE GOVERNMENT AND SECTARIAN SCHOOLS.

THE past year has brought the relations of the Government to missionary schools for the Indians, carried on by various denominations, into unusual prominence. For some time there has been a vague feeling on the part of many of the friends and supporters of such schools that sectarian contest and friction were developing over the question of Government grants of money in aid of them, in a very deplorable manner, and the opinion has often been

expressed that the whole system was vicious and should be abolished. Yet few could have been prepared for the rapid spread of the movement actually to do away with that system which marked the year 1892. A compendious record of the action taken by various church authorities will show the drift of sentiment.

The Presbyterian Assembly at Portland, Oregon, resolved last May that "the practice of appropriating public money for the support of sectarian schools among the Indians, as is now done in the contract schools, ought at once to cease." The Baptist Church has never taken any money from the Government for its own Indian schools, and so was perfectly consistent in memorializing Congress, as it did at Philadelphia last May, to pass a constitutional amendment prohibiting such grants, and also prohibiting the States from aiding any sectarian school or society. On May 9, 1892, the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church at Omaha, besides condemning the system, voted that none of the missionary societies working under its sanction should "receive from the national Government any moneys for educational work among the Indians." The United Presbyterian Church, in General Assembly at Allegheny in the same month, protested against "all Government appropriations for the denominational Indian schools and for other sectarian purposes as unconstitutional." The Board of Missions of the Protestant Episcopal Church voted at Baltimore, on October 19, that "subsidies from the Treasury of the United States in aid of Indian education ought neither to be sought nor to be accepted by this church"; and a week later, at Hartford, the American Missionary Association (Congregational) took similar action.

These denominations are the principal ones, next to the Catholics, that support Indian schools, and the serious change that the action they propose would make in the present policy of the Government may be seen at a glance. Out of the \$2,291,650 appropriated by Congress in 1892 for the support of Indian schools, nearly one-third, or \$611,570, was given to sectarian schools. The Catholic schools had by far the larger share of this amount, their part being \$394,756. We presume that this was fairly their due on the existing basis of contracts made according to the number of schools. Certainly, it is not to be supposed that the present Administration would have allowed them more than their just due. Indeed, if anything is to be inferred from the Catholic outcry against Commissioner Morgan, heard in some quarters, it is that he had not given them all they were entitled to. We know nothing of the merits of this somewhat acrimonious dispute, and refer to it only to say that of itself it is a strong argument against such mixing up of Government and religion. The entanglement has been steadily growing more serious

and burdensome. In 1886, the Indian schools under church direction received but \$228,250, and in six years, as we have shown, the amount was nearly trebled. In the same period the quarrelling and recrimination have also increased threefold, it would seem, and it is time that the whole system should be abolished.

At the annual Mohonk Conference of the Friends of the Indian, last October, this question was discussed at some length. The general fear appeared to be that the Catholics would not follow the lead of other churches and give up their Government aid. Dr. Ellinwood said:

"I do not believe that the Roman Catholic Church is going to give up its hold on the contract schools without a tremendous struggle. I have this feeling, that, if we withdraw on the Protestant side, the result will be that more and more schools will be put down in the category of Catholic schools, and that the surest way to the establishment of a relationship of Church and State will be right along that line."

Another speaker argued that the Catholic Church could not afford to put itself in the position of being the only church seeking funds from the Treasury for sectarian uses, and that, even if it did, the question would take such shape that the system would soon go down in any case. Moreover, a letter was read from Bishop Marty, President of the Bureau of Catholic Indian Missions, in which he said that his Church "will endeavor to provide for her own, no matter what the State may do."

What the State ought to do at the earliest possible moment is to attend to its own Indian schools, and let the churches attend to their own. The two cannot be mixed without mischief. Commissioner Morgan has found religious prejudice, injected into a question of public policy, to add new terrors to office-holding. Most important of all, a great principle is at stake. Already the argument has been brought forward by a Catholic of high standing: "We have just as good a right to our proportion of the public school funds in the several States as we have to our proportion of the national funds for the education of Indians, and this latter right is conceded." The premises of such an argument ought to be destroyed at once. Since the coming of Monsignor Satolli, with full powers from the Pope, the temper of the Catholic Church on the question of the public schools has undergone a great change. The time is now promising for a movement to reaffirm in legislation the American principle of the absolute independence of Church and State, and no better beginning can be made than by breaking off the connection of the Federal Government with religious bodies, through the Indian schools.

MAYOR GILROY'S MESSAGE.

MAYOR GILROY'S message reads very well and "draws attention" to a variety of interesting topics, on one or two of which he speaks with authority, while on the

rest his opinions are of no more value than the first man one meets in the Hoffman House café. For instance, there are very few busy men who would cross the street to know what he thinks about quarantine, or immigration, or the public health, to which he devotes considerable space, for with these things he has not, and cannot have, anything to do. About sewerage he gives some information which he acquired while acting as Commissioner of Public Works; about the aqueduct, which he got from the Commission that Tammany has tried to overthrow and discredit; about the street-paving, as to which he is well informed. The rest of the message consists simply of suggestions of enterprises in which he thinks the city ought to engage, and all of which would have something in them for Tammany. The value of suggestions, however, depends largely on the source from which they come, or, in other words, on the character of the man who offers them. Both Mr. Croker and Mr. Hewitt, for instance, know a good deal about the government of this city, but suggestions by Mr. Croker would be received very differently from suggestions by Mr. Hewitt, even in matters on which they were equally well informed.

Our object in commenting on Mr. Gilroy's message at all is not, however, to discredit what he says, but to call attention to what he ought to have said and has not said; or, in other words, to a fatal defect in it, a defect so serious that it is not going too far to say that it ought to be guarded against by law. It is a defect, too, which was very manifest in the Governor's message also. Any one who will take the trouble to examine the law under which the Mayor of New York holds office will find that the sole independent power, the sole power for the exercise of which he only is responsible, is the appointing power. All his other powers are exercised in common with several other persons, whose votes have equal weight with his own, on different boards. The appointing power is by far the most important of all, because the local administration, which Mr. Gilroy says he desires to be "efficient, economical, and progressive," must depend for its efficiency and economy and progressiveness on the quality of the men who fill the administrative offices. Many people, in thinking of administration, local and other, think of it as a machine of some sort which is wound up and then jogs on like a clock with mechanical regularity. It is nothing of the sort. It consists of a group of men paid for doing certain things in a certain way. Maladministration consists of bad conduct on the part of these men; good administration consists of good conduct on the part of these men; and the ultimate responsibility, of course, falls on the person or persons who select them and supervise their work.

Now, the chief, almost the only, duty of importance imposed on the Mayor of New York by law is the filling of the offices. This is his special function. It

was made his special and exclusive function in 1884, under a strong public sense of the mischief that was done by compelling him to share the appointing power with the Board of Aldermen. This was found to work badly because it divided the responsibility, and divided responsibility in administrative matters generally means no responsibility whatever. When the Mayor was released from the necessity of getting the Aldermen to confirm his nominations, people felt that they had accomplished a great reform, for, said they, inasmuch as the quality of the administration depends on the quality of the officers, we shall now know whom to blame when the quality is bad. Therefore, when the Mayor is talking about the work which is not carried on by his appointees, he is simply gossiping about government much as men are wont to gossip in the café. His observations, for example, on quarantine and immigration are about as valuable as his observations on the present condition of France would be. They may be sound, but they have no sort of importance. But when he is talking about the manner in which he has himself exercised his great and exclusive mayoral function of making appointments to office, of supplying justice for the poor through the police courts, of supplying security against fire through the Fire Commissioners, of supplying honesty and skill in street repairs through the Street-Cleaning Bureau, and the proper regulation of the liquor traffic through the Excise Commissioners—then he talks business. This is, or would be, the "message" people want to have, and of this the mayoral message ought, we hold, mainly to consist.

Strange to say, on this topic Mr. Gilroy has not a single word. Between his assumption of his office on Monday week and the issue of his message on Thursday he performed by far the most important acts he will have to perform during his term of office, in making eleven appointments, the only acts of his administration, probably, for which he will be solely responsible. But the message does not contain the slightest allusion to them. It ought to tell us who Michael T. Daly, the new Commissioner of Public Works, is, and what are the qualities or experiences which have marked him out for this place. It ought to describe minutely the claims of the four new police justices, and especially those of Joseph Koch, the late Excise Commissioner, and give Mr. Gilroy's reasons for believing that they will fill the place of magistrates in a great city so as to be an example and encouragement to the honest, sober, and industrious poor, and a terror to evildoers of every degree. But he does not say one word about them, and this omission really makes his message a mockery. If the Comptroller had followed his example, he would have discussed the tariff, the silver question, and the Bimetallic Conference, but have made no mention of the municipal finances.

The collateral objections to this kind of

message, though not so obvious, are also very serious. Exhortations to citizens, and especially the poor foreign citizens, to "coöperate" with the authorities in attempts to "improve the outward condition of the city," to "serve the convenience of the people," and to "address themselves to the problems which await solution with patience and courage," and so forth, come with a bad, not to say ridiculous, grace from a functionary who, almost on the day he takes office, proceeds to display in the most marked way within his reach his contempt for the very first conditions of efficient administration, and for the very foundations of public order, by his choice of subordinates. A very large proportion of these Tammany worthies are well known to the criminal and semi-criminal classes as old bar-room and gambling-house and dog-fighting acquaintances, and old companions in "big drunks"; and therefore moral exhortation from the man who has picked them up and put them in places of dignity and emolument is well calculated to excite the merriment of the thoughtless. The truth is, the time for preaching from our present class of rulers is past. They ought either to stop writing "messages" or make them very brief. But better still would be a legal provision requiring them to give the reason for their appointments to office, as judges are compelled to give the reasons for their decisions. We all like to listen to anybody who talks on subjects which he understands, but every decent man is restless under sermons from the ungodly.

THE JEWS IN EUROPE.

EVEN such a cool-headed and cautious observer as the London *Economist* declares that the hostility to the Jews on the Continent—that is, in Germany, Russia, Austria, and Hungary—is becoming a very serious political phenomenon. Everybody knows what the anti-Semitic movement in Russia is. It has led to expulsion of Jews from the country on a vast scale and the subjection of those who remain to a persecution which will either compel them to emigrate or make the successful pursuit of any respectable calling impossible for them. Matters have not gone as far as this in Austria, but the feeling against them is rising, and the hostility of the peasantry to them in Hungary is so great that they are in constant danger of their lives. In Germany there has been a great revival of the anti-Semitic movement, which the present Emperor tried to discourage when he came to the throne by dismissing its leader, Herr Stoeckel, the Court Chaplain. But it has never been anything like what it is to-day. A certain Ahlwardt is now at the head of it, and he recently, in one of his violent speeches, accused a Jewish contractor of having furnished bad rifles to the army and obtained their acceptance through bribery. When put on trial

for libel, he produced documents stolen from the War Department, showing that there was some trifling foundation for the charge in the fact that some rifles in a large contract had been found defective. But the trial so endeared him to the public that he was elected to the Reichstag by a majority of three to one; the Conservatives, although he is a Liberal, all supporting him. An anti-Semitic plank was then put in the Conservative platform asking for the exclusion of the Jews from all public offices, and the Reichstag, by an overwhelming vote, gave Ahlwardt his seat, in spite of his condemnation to five months' imprisonment.

The *Economist* ascribes the hatred of the Jews in Germany to jealousy of their success in trade and in the professions, to German pride of race which the Government encourages as a help to patriotism, to the Jews' love of distinction and display, to a "certain satiric insolence of tongue," and finally to "their separateness, by their ceremonials and by their habit of intermarriage." But, as it points out, no change in the character or manners of the Jews is likely, even if possible. Nothing the Government can do, therefore, can make them more acceptable to the German public, and it is equally impossible to attempt to give expression in legislation to the popular dislike of them. They play too large a part in all the great interests of the State to be made objects of persecution, inasmuch as they number among them some of the most distinguished men in every calling. There are signs in France, where the Jews have, since the Revolution, been more comfortable than in any other European country, of the same growth of hostility to them among all classes. The press is becoming more and more savage in its denunciations of them, and shows more and more disposition to make them responsible for all financial scandals.

It is difficult to account for all this, but it is safe to say that the spread of the anti-Semitic feeling is a product, more or less direct, of the socialistic feeling which is now in the air in every country, and seeking expression by all sorts of channels. Its most marked feature is a vague hostility to the rich in trade and manufactures and banking; and in Germany the Jews are made to stand for wealth in general and take the blows intended for it. In France, the Socialist hatred of the well-to-do is now expended on the "bourgeois," or black-coated people at large, but there are signs that it may yet be concentrated on the Jews, and especially Jewish bankers and capitalists. Apropos of this there is in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* a remarkable article, by Vicomte Melchior de Vogüé, on the present crisis in France, in which he makes the prevailing unrest all over the Continent a rising against the domination of wealth over modern communities, not unlike, and in fact the legitimate successor of, the rising of one hundred years ago against the feudalism

of the landed aristocracy. He argues that it is absurd to talk any longer, as the economists do, of wealthy men as simply capitalists discharging an economic function; they are the real rulers of the nations, through their influence of one sort or another on the legislators, and through their control, as employers of labor, of the lives of the poor. They have, he says, displaced both royalty and aristocracy and religion in shaping national policy and defining national interests, and they have become as contemptuous of opinion, as a political or moral force, as ever were the great landholders of the old régime, when one of them had Voltaire cudgelled by a valet. He sneers at the press as a countervailing agency, by pointing out the way in which the public, which once accepted the press as "pure thought" direct from the brain, has now, through sheer force of habit, come to accept it as the product of a factory, worked, like cloth factories, simply for dividends—a phenomenon which he says sheds a flood of light on the situation. In other words, he considers the Socialist movement an insurrection against plutocracy, which has its prototype in the Revolution of 1789.

THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

TORONTO, January 4, 1893.

The philosophical interests in this country have been the last to feel the need of united effort. Perhaps it is because philosophers are the most independent of men. Some would say it is because they are the most polemic of men. Yet their common ideals and aims should make them the most brotherly of men. It is interesting to note that the movement towards the formation of associations in this department came from the side of psychology, that aggressive and just now somewhat exacting science.

The American Psychological Association was formed last summer at the instance of that far-seeing man, President Hall. The session held at the University of Pennsylvania last week (December 27 and 28) was accordingly the first regular programme. No one, I think, who attended the meeting failed to be impressed with the quite unusual enthusiasm of the members, and the still more unusual peace and serenity that prevailed in all the discussions. It was really an *irenicon*—a message of good-will at the Christmas season—this cordial statement of agreements and differences in one branch, at least, of philosophy.

I say "a branch of philosophy," because the policy of the Association clearly looks towards such a statement of its platform. Among its "charter members" are men of different philosophies and different psychologies, and in the admission of new names the two questions to be asked, as I apprehend, are these: Is he a genuine psychologist? and, Is he a peaceable man? For we are determined—if my breath of the atmosphere of the Philadelphia meeting was well drawn—not to harbor men who do not wish well to the ideals and methods of legitimate academic and scientific psychology, nor men, on the other hand, who lack that breadth of view which constitutes philosophy, or that

courtesy of spirit which makes of its adversary a friend.

The Association elected the following officers for the ensuing year: President, G. Stanley Hall; Vice-President, George T. Ladd; Secretary, Joseph Jastrow. The business of the body is largely in the hands of an Executive Council on which many of the larger universities are represented. The programme was not long. It comprised papers by Cattell, Hall, Nichols, Pace, Witmer, Sanford, and Bryan, besides others informally presented. A full report of the proceedings is to be published in the *American Journal of Psychology*, and afterwards in independent form. Of these, perhaps the one of most general interest, apart from Dr. Sanford's observations on dreams, which have already gone the rounds of the newspapers, was President Hall's account of the "History and Prospects of Experimental Psychology in America." While presented as a sketch merely—an indication of the springs of the rising current of present-day interest and effort—it contained a relative estimate of men and events in the immediate past. Dr. Hall attributes to three men, all educators as well as philosophers, a preponderating psychological influence. These three are Mark Hopkins, Hickok, and McCosh. It is notable, as Dr. Hall remarked, that Dr. McCosh was the first in America to recognize the importance of "physiological psychology" and the necessity of cultivating it. It occurs also to the present writer to inquire whether Dr. McCosh was not the first influential educator, who was also a theologian, to recognize and teach the doctrine of biological evolution in this country. It is well, amid the cross-currents of the present and the multitude of details of new research, to look backward to the sources from which we inherit our tendencies, and to the men to whom we owe our inspirations.

A "breezy stimulus" was brought to the meeting by Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard, who has recently come from Freiburg to be director of the Harvard Psychological Laboratory. Dr. Münsterberg gave us an hour of rapid German, and stirred up a vigorous discussion—as his work always stirs discussion—upon the very foundations of experimental research. This discussion, as well as others, was enriched by the contributions of Prof. Titchener of Cornell, who, besides exemplifying the Leipzig degree—now no rare thing here—brings also the philosophical training of Oxford University.

The Association decided not to take part, in an official way, in the congresses of the World's Fair, preferring to leave its members free to give their support to such arrangements and plans as might be agreed upon by the various World's Fair congress committees. I may also say, for the benefit of those who have not seen the announcement in the philosophical journals, that the International Congress for Experimental Psychology has made a similar decision—i. e., not to hold an extra session in America this year.

The next meeting of the American Association is to be held at Columbia College, New York, during the Christmas recess, 1893. Reports of the present meeting may be had shortly from the Secretary. J. M. B.

MONEY AND LABOR IN AUSTRALIA.

SYDNEY, November 27, 1892.

PROBABLY few countries have in a year suffered a greater loss of prosperity without reaching a crisis than have some of the Australian

colonies. Of the causes that have contributed to this loss, the most direct is the sudden inability to borrow money for public works, and the resulting change in the position of the laboring classes. For many years New South Wales and Victoria had only to announce in London their desire to float a loan, to have the amount required over-subscribed at once. Since the Baring crisis England has become more cautious about lending its money to far-distant countries, however different their government and method might be from the ill-fated Argentine. The colonies already committed to public works, undertaken when money was easily obtained, for a time hoped to carry these on, and, rather than abandon them, paid continually higher rates for their loans, thus depreciating still further their own credit, till finally the climax was reached, and the amounts desired were not forthcoming.

In previous years Government expenditure had found employment, in one colony or another, for a large population of laborers, as well as contractors and storekeepers, who suddenly found themselves unprovided for when such works as railways, bridges, and improvements to harbors and rivers had to be suspended. Naturally such men sought for employment in other industries, only to find themselves involved in direct conflict with the labor-unions and classed everywhere as "black-legs." Nowhere have labor-unions till now had greater power than in Australia, being able to limit the number of their members, inasmuch as the Government found work for so large a proportion of the outsiders. The leaders of the unions failed to appreciate the changed position, and with their old-time pride ordered on no reasonable grounds a strike of about 7,000 men employed as miners at the Broken Hill Silver Mines, while in Sydney and Melbourne there were over 10,000 men equally capable out of work. This strike collapsed at about the same time as that at Homestead, Pa., and for the same reasons—exhaustion of funds and abundance of non-union labor. The unionists have changed places with the unemployed, and it remains to be seen whether they will not in turn find themselves treated as "black-legs" when trying for work of another kind. Hard though the lesson has been, there can be no doubt that the results of this strike will be beneficial to the colonies, in bringing about a fairer adjustment of the rewards of capital and of labor. The hard-and-fast scale of wages enforced by the unions must become elastic to suit the needs of the times, and, more than all, their leaders must understand that agreements can no more be broken with impunity by them than by their employers.

For several years there went on in Melbourne the wildest speculations in land and buildings imaginable. In the main streets of this city of 400,000 inhabitants land brought higher prices than in Broadway, New York. Magnificent buildings were erected that, if fully occupied at fair rentals, could not return 1 per cent. on their cost to-day. Many of these are absolutely tenantless. Finance companies and building societies arose in great numbers, and their shares quickly went to heavy premiums, though paid up to but a small proportion of their ultimate liability. With the collapse that has necessarily followed, such shares became valueless, and the holders are in most cases ruined, as the further liability, so little thought of at first, must now be collected by a liquidator or assignee in bankruptcy. Such changes seldom come without some criminal acts being discovered, yet, considering the marvellous ease with which money was obtained,

the record is comparatively a clean one. None of the causes of depression affects seriously the real industries of the colony; the wool clip and the wheat harvest are as sound as ever, the production of silver is increasing every year, and this year, too, the gold mines have been unusually successful. Undoubtedly the cities are too large in proportion to the country, but new countries have suffered from this centralization before. The Australian colonies afford a safe and legitimate field for the investment of the capital of older countries, provided reasonable care is taken and gambling profits are not sought. One of the greatest dangers of previous years, drought, has been materially lessened by artesian boring and water conservation.

In climate Australia has many advantages. Labor in the open air is practicable the year round, and clothing and fuel need not be specially provided for the winter. Sheep and cattle need never be sheltered. The governments are certainly most favorable and many laws are admirable. The United States has already successfully borrowed our Ballot Act, and in time may adopt the equally excellent system of land titles known as the Torrens Act. Conspiracy against the laws for the maintenance of order has been boldly and severely punished, even when such conspiracy consisted merely of words from which no actual violence resulted, and the Government in power knew that they were thereby risking the votes of many of their supporters. Equally boldly in New South Wales have those directors and managers of financial institutions been punished who conspired to the issue of false balance-sheets and misleading prospectuses. Victoria has been slower, but there is as yet little reason to doubt that she will act equally well.

Hence from this depression real good may come. What is most needed is the reestablishment of colonial credit in London, and this will easily and at once follow on federation. That there are many difficulties in the way is easily appreciated when one remembers how hard it was for the American colonies to unite even in the face of a great common danger. Many private interests may have to be sacrificed to the general good, but it may safely be said that adversity has brought the possibility of federation far nearer than the formal meetings in more prosperous days; and that this result may be soon reached must be the desire of every well-wisher of Australia.

J. E. BULLARD.

FOREIGN JURISDICTION IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, December 10, 1892.

FOR several reasons one may justify himself for having resolved to write to you on this subject once only, and that not before the moment of departure from this country: first, because most people here believe, with Mr. Chamberlain, in 'Things Japanese,' that it is a "thorny question" of which they are "utterly sick and weary"; again, because on this subject a mature opinion alone can be of any value; and, finally, because the publication of conclusions such as those here recorded is infallibly the signal for personal abuse from a section of the foreign press here, which, at the distance of several thousand miles, can be borne with greater equanimity.

I sing, then, the theme of foreign jurisdiction in Japan; of that form of invasion of national sovereignty which consists in maintaining indefinitely a staff of foreign judges and foreign sheriffs within the confines of an inde-

pendent state; of a system that substitutes foreign laws and foreign procedure for the sovereign rules of a civilized nation; of a policy that denies efficacy to the merest police regulations until they have been confirmed by the assent of seventeen States, scattered all over the globe, some of them less worthy in all that makes national character than the State over whom they domineer; and of a legal arrangement which avowedly rests on the theory, false in fact and abhorrent and humiliating to every Japanese patriot, that the courts of his country are incapable of administering even a mediocre justice between man and man. The American nation is the only one which recognizes, in its relations with Japan, the true notion of extraterritoriality—that it is a jurisdiction delegated by the sovereign of the country to certain foreign agents to administer certain abnormal rules of conduct in limited classes of cases. But even in this its best aspect it rests on an assumption of jural deficiency and legal incapacity which is now amply proved to have lost whatever foundation it once had.

The rationale of extraterritoriality was concisely expressed by Secretary Fish, in 1871, when he wrote to Minister De Long:

"All that has been sought by the Christian Powers is to withdraw their subjects from the operation of such laws as conflict with our ideas of civilization and humanity, and to keep the power of trying and punishing in the hands of their own representatives."

This is the whole basis of extraterritorial jurisdiction in Japan. The diplomatic documents of the times, in which the epithets "semi-barbarous," "semi-enlightened," "despotism," and the like are freely used, indicate clearly the nature of the dominant conception. Epithets such as these never had any foundation in fact. The right of Japanese culture to receive in the fullest degree the title of a civilization is still to a certain section of people an impassable *pons asinorum*, but it is open to a demonstration as easy and as various as is the Pythagorean proposition.

All that could serve, forty years ago, as the basis of a claim of extraterritorial jurisdiction, was the undoubted presence of a feudal framework in the government of the country. Even this never seemed a sufficient basis to Townsend Harris, the negotiator of the treaty. He declared that the claim was "against his conscience"; and the then Secretary of State (Marey) regarded it as an unjust interference with the municipal laws of a country. But this framework of feudalism disappeared many years ago. Japan had long since outgrown it; and it fell away, amid the cannon-smoke of 1868, like a rotten scaffold which has been left about a completed mansion and finally falls at a tremor of the earth. With it disappeared the outward disfiguring incidents of a feudal state of society. It may be safely said that there is little more left of feudalism to-day in Japan than there is in Germany. As for the inner substance—the degree of refinement to which the art of living has been carried, the private and public virtues of the people—it is inexcusably invidious for us to assume to judge them in any other spirit than that in which we would criticise Italy, France, or any other political equal of Europe. Let any one come to Japan in the spirit of a learner, and he will find that it has lessons of life even for self-contained America.

The exasperating thought to the sensitive Japanese (and that is every Japanese, when the national honor is touched), is that, while the bonds of extraterritoriality are fast about his country, other nations whose irregular and

irresponsible justice constantly calls for diplomatic intervention are endowed, by an Occident birth (so to speak), with an autonomy which some of these very offenders join in denying to Japan. When the Japanese subject glances over our diplomatic history and reads the incidents of the *Virginian* in Cuba, of Van Bokkelen in Hayti, of Wheelock in Venezuela (to name no others), and realizes that every one of these States is as much beyond his own in international rights as it is behind in much that makes for civilization, it is no wonder that he regards Treaty Revision as first and foremost a question of redeeming the national honor. He need not claim that justice is administered in his country in any manner that could be compared to that of any nation of the earth. Certainly he could not say that the British or American resident could find everything here that he would meet in his own courts. There are certain features of his justice which an Anglo-Saxon cannot expect to find anywhere duplicated. *Quot homines, tot sententiae*, and the rule applies to nations also. But I am free to say (knowing something of Japanese courts and not very much of European) that I should as willingly be tried in a Japanese court as in that of any Continental nation—and more willingly, in some respects.

To give an instance, the penalties (especially the fines) of the Japanese Criminal Code are considerably lighter, strange as it may seem to some, than in our own country. This was recently well illustrated by the recent action of the British representative in Japan, when he gave assent to the new Game Regulations and promulgated a British draft; for the penalties of the Japanese ordinance reached a maximum of from 20 to 50 dollars (Mexican), while those of the British Order reached from 50 to 100, with the added alternative of a term of imprisonment. In general practice, too, the Japanese courts seem to run to much lighter terms of imprisonment. Again, the foreigner is everywhere here treated with much more consideration than in continental Europe—for reasons which cannot here be explained; and a foreigner may count on more courtesy in a Japanese tribunal than the average commoner could look for on the Continent.

After all, what is it that goes to make a proper administration of justice? Is it good laws? Then most emphatically there is justice here; for Japan has laws equal to the best in Europe. They are the product of a concert between the best foreign and native experts, and have been two decades in preparing. Is it competent judicial officials? There are now some 1,250 in all, nearly half of them trained in Western law; organized into courts on a most approved plan; stationed in every province and county of the empire; and comparing more than favorably with English and French courts in the despatch of business. Many of them lack experience, but that is a defect which time is every day curing, and is certainly not to be emphasized. Is it that the nation must have certain fundamental notions of law and justice? Then it can be demonstrated that Japan is one of the most law-abiding nations in the world; that it possesses a legal and judicial history dating back at least to the days of Charlemagne; that such institutions as banks and exchanges, with their accompaniments of checks, bank-notes, bills of exchange, and "futures," have been familiar for 200 years in Japan; that the judiciary of the last two centuries developed their precedents in a manner differing little in spirit from that of the judges of England; and that a system of procedure and of substantive rights was then worked out, containing in essence all the

titles of European law, and corresponding in general trend to Continental rules. Mr. Blaine, in 1881, in language which there could have been no evidence to justify, predicated of this people "an utter incompatibility of habits of thought on all legal and moral questions," which, with other things, "made it impossible to trust the persons, the property, and the lives of our own people to such a jurisdiction." Of this I can only say that a more cruel libel was never penned in our diplomatic history. So gross a misconception can be compared to some of the ignorant notions of the United States that lodged in many British heads for decades after the Revolution. But time has brought its revenges. "All that has been sought," said Mr. Fish, in the passage above quoted, "is to withdraw their subjects from the operation of such laws as conflict with our ideas of justice and humanity." Yet four weeks ago, twenty-one years after this sentence was penned, an accused murderer, Carstens, arraigned in a Yokohama tribunal, demanded that he should be tried in a Japanese court, not in the German consular court, disclaiming his German nationality for the specific reason that he could hope under the Japanese Code, but not under the German, for a certain diminution of penalty on the ground of extenuating circumstances. Thus in 1892 we are presented with the spectacle of a subject of a leading Western Power "seeking to withdraw" himself "from the operation of a law" of his own State because the corresponding law of Japan is less "in conflict with his ideas of justice and humanity."

It is time that we recognized for Japan the validity of the honorable principle enunciated by Secretary Marcy nearly forty years ago, during a diplomatic incident with Austria:

"The system of proceedings in criminal cases in the Austrian Government has undoubtedly, as is the case in most other absolute countries, many harsh features, and is deficient in many safeguards which our laws provide for the security of the accused. But it is not within the competence of one independent Power to reform the jurisprudence of others, nor has it the right to regard as an injury the application of the judicial system and established modes of proceeding in foreign countries to its citizens when fairly brought under their operation. All we can ask of Austria . . . is that she should give American citizens the full and fair benefit of her system, such as it is. . . . She cannot be asked to modify her mode of proceedings to suit our views, or to extend to our citizens all the advantages which her subjects would have under our better and more humane system of criminal jurisprudence."

If this is good law for Austria, it is even better law for Japan, for the legal system of Japan to-day is probably much better than that of Austria forty years ago. On the principle here set forth, Japan may surely claim that the long-standing indictment against her be quashed without delay, and that her judicial autonomy be once more restored.

And now, in conclusion, who is responsible for this indictment, as it is accepted by the Western States of to-day? First, tradition, and the inertia of diplomacy. The traditions are of two centuries ago, and rest on notions long exploded. The inertia is due to that diplomatic love of the *status quo* which at once establishes and endangers the delicate equilibrium of international forces. Diplomacy will never "move on" from a position of vantage till the policeman of public sentiment lifts his club.

Second, the local opinion of the foreign settlers in the open ports is on the whole against the surrender of foreign jurisdiction. It is idle to say of these communities, as some friends of Japan have reported, that their

members are of such a character as to discredit their opinions on any subject. Those whose opinions go to mould the local sentiment are for the most part reputable men and gentlemen, and need not be gratuitously slandered. They are simply mistaken—and this may be said, as a low-tariff champion may criticise the alleged delusion of protectionist manufacturers, without in any way impeaching their good faith. Our views can never be independent of our interests, our national qualities, our opportunities for information, our *milieu*—and the error here flows from all of these sources.

But, third, it is nursed and expanded and disseminated by one or two resident editors, whose pens, with fatal malignity, devote themselves incessantly to the denunciation, in superlative terms, of the general depravity of the Japanese race, and in particular their incapacity to administer justice in their own land. These men (in the practice of their profession) seem to have lost all sense of honor, fairness, and veracity. They will deliberately pervert an opponent's arguments, carefully conceal from the public any but their own side of a case, falsely attribute to others statements and opinions never made or entertained, and invariably attribute to acts the worst motives. Yet these are precisely the persons who talk loudest of the integrity and general superiority of the Western races. As a demonstrative instance, selected from among many, let me chronicle briefly a recent *exposé* of one of these journals' methods. Writing from the ex-parte statement of a foreigner who had laid an accusation of theft in a Japanese court, it broadly charged Japanese laws with being "fundamentally opposed to our notions of right and wrong," and it named, as the instance which "eclipsed all others in blundering stupidity," the discharge of the accused Japanese by the Court in the above case. It said, in the course of the controversy:

"What we do not profess to know has nothing to do with our argument. What we do know is that a coolie, taken in the act of thieving and seen by three witnesses who gave evidence in court, was acquitted. If acquitting a man under such conditions is Japanese law and justice, then it is entirely foreign to European ideas, and that is all we wish to prove."

Put in such a way, the failure of justice might be conceded, though no allowance is made for the Judge's opinion of the witnesses' credibility. But the above comments were all based on an ex-parte statement, and were published before the proceedings of the Court were made public, as they were within a few days. The main facts, it then appeared, were as follows:

"No coolie was arrested. The man arrested was one Yamamoto, a merchant. A Mr. Green found him apparently superintending the felonious transportation of certain tea, a portion of which belonged to the firm, and had handed him over to the police on suspicion. A Chinaman, Lo, a shipping clerk of the firm, testified that he had hired the house to which the tea was being transported, that three Japanese, of whom the accused was not one, were superintending the transportation, and that the connection of the accused was limited to the procuring of a key to the house, at Lo's request. A Japanese employee of the firm testified that the firm's employees had made a mistake in transporting to that house (this being the fact that had excited the suspicion of the accuser). Finally, the head of a company of coolie-porters testified that he had received orders from the employee Lo to carry the tea to the house in question."

What a complete misrepresentation was the former statement ("which we do know") will easily be seen; and the journal in question could not avoid admitting it. One could give

a dozen instances to the same effect in almost as many instances, and the one here selected gives only a faint idea of what sometimes occurs. It is journalism of this sort which keeps the community in an unnatural ferment, fostering public opinion with the venom of its sting, and irritating sores that might have healed long ago. It is a fact that these journals, flourishing as they do within Japanese territory, assume a tone of arrogance and abuse towards the whole Japanese nation which can only be compared in our country to that of the Anarchist papers of Mest and his fellows. In Europe they would speedily encounter the prohibition of the law, if indeed they were not first drowned in libel suits. As it is, they find protection under the agis of Exterritoriality. They know that their occupation must disappear with that worn-out institution, and they defend it. But to its speedy dissolution every well-wisher of Japan must look forward, and meantime may do what little he can to hasten that end. J. H. W.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS CAUCUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of yesterday you make severe comment upon the method pursued by the friends of Mr. Lodge in promoting his election to the United States Senate by the Legislature of Massachusetts. You criticise both the fact that a caucus of the Republican Representatives was called, and that it was called at such an early date. The facts are these: Six years ago, when an election for Senator was held, the two houses did not agree in their separate action, and met for joint ballot. On the first vote, the Democrats, being a minority of the whole body, cast a merely complimentary vote for one of their own party. Mr. Dawes, one of the Republican candidates, received the votes of only a minority of the Republicans; but before the vote was declared, Mr. Dawes's partner, a Democrat, arose and changed his vote and cast it for Mr. Dawes. He was immediately followed by the greater part of the Democrats, and the election of Mr. Dawes on the first ballot was thus secured. After the fact of the Democratic action was evident, a number of Republicans who had voted for their candidates also changed their votes; but the fact, nevertheless, remained that the minority candidate of the Republicans was elected by Democratic votes. Ever since that time it has been the determination of the active Republicans that the Republican party, so long as it formed a majority of the Legislature, should control the election of the next Senator, and to that end should nominate its candidate in party caucus before meeting in joint convention. At the next Senatorial election the Republicans were practically unanimous in favor of reelecting Senator Hoar, and therefore no caucus was held because none was needed. But when the Republicans held their State Convention this autumn, the following plank was adopted by unanimous vote:

"We are to choose a State Legislature which shall elect a United States Senator, as well as care for our State affairs. We believe that the Republicans in that body should nominate in caucus and elect a United States Senator without seeking the advice of, or combinations with, any other political party or parties."

Some time afterwards sixty-nine Republican Senators-elect and Representatives-elect issued an invitation to the other members of their

party who had been elected to the Legislature, to unite with them in calling and attending a joint caucus to nominate a Republican candidate for United States Senator "on such a date as the signers of the call may subsequently determine." The total membership of this Legislature is 280, of whom 195 are Republicans. One hundred and sixty-four Republicans, or about four-fifths, signed the call for the caucus. A circular was then issued indicating the available days for the caucus, and stating that the date of the caucus would "be determined by the wishes of a majority of all the signers of the call," and requesting an indication of preference upon a form enclosed. Of 161 who expressed their wishes, 127 united in favor of holding the caucus on the 4th of January, the day when the Legislature was to be organized. It is a matter of public knowledge that the caucus was held on that day, and by a very strong vote nominated Mr. Lodge as the Republican candidate for Senatorship.

These are politics, and partisan politics, but they are not Hill politics. Mr. Lodge and Mr. Hill are both politicians, but they have nothing else in common. One is no more to be classified in the same category with the other than the Massachusetts Legislature is to be likened to Tammany.—Very truly,

CALM OBSERVER.

BOSTON, January 6, 1893.

[We are glad to have our correspondent's testimony to the fact that six years ago the "active Republicans" of Massachusetts resolved to preserve the party majority in the Legislature from the influence either of public opinion in the choice of United States Senator or of independent sentiment within that majority, as well as from the risk of that sort of coalition by which Charles Sumner was elected to the United States Senate. This exactly conforms to the wishes and dictates of the Machine, whether it be a Hill Machine, a Tammany Machine, or a Lodge Machine. That a State Convention could be brought to pass a resolution like that quoted proves that the sway of the Machine is undisputed in Massachusetts—not that we have made an absurd charge against Mr. Lodge.

Without, however, arguing the point further in our own behalf, we will cite the speech made in the caucus itself by Senator Butler, an opponent of Mr. Lodge.—ED. NATION.]

"I confess that as a Republican I am greatly surprised at the action of this caucus. . . . We have had too many actions in our old commonwealth to regret; we have had too few actions over which we could well rejoice. Way back—perhaps two years ago, in some instances—one of the candidates who has been suggested with reference to this great and honorable office [Mr. Lodge] began his efforts to obtain it. He used methods and resorted to practices never before heard of in this commonwealth with reference to this office. The State Convention passed a resolution demanding a caucus—an extraordinary thing to do—and prior to the election on November 8 this State was raked over with a fine-tooth comb, not in the interest of the Republican party, but in the interest of the man who is a candidate for this place. I do not stand here to detract from his reputation for ability or his standing as a Republican; but I say this, that before everything we are Republicans, and as Republicans we cannot afford to do this thing. Mark you! However this may result, whatever may be the action taken by this caucus, it will not do anything to solidify that beloved party whose representatives we are.

"I could point my finger to many things

which have been done by this candidate which are not in keeping with the dignity with which this office has been contested in the past. I do not wish to impute to him things which are beneath a man as a man, but I do mean to say that they should not be done by a man who is a candidate for this great and honorable office, for this office, the highest in the gift of the people of this commonwealth. There has been such a use and abuse of the Machine in his campaign that the precedent may be established in this State that no man can go to the United States Senate in the future except by resorting to similar means. In New York State it is supposed to be a very objectionable thing for a man to use the Machine to secure an election to the Senate. Are we to say by our action that in Massachusetts for a man to get to the United States Senate he must follow along for years with the Machine, using its power to further his own interests? Now, I appeal to the record of the Republican party. Where in the past, in this State, will you find such an instance of Machine manipulation? Nowhere. Men have stood up and announced their willingness to be candidates for the United States Senate, and the judgment of the people of the commonwealth has been made up, not by the special and individual efforts of any man, but by the great consensus of opinion which has grown up until it has become so formidable that it has been powerful to place a man in that high office."

BALLOT REFORM IN THE COURTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is not often, at least since the days of Chief-Justice Marshall, that a sound political doctrine is enforced by a legal decision before it has become well established in the mind of the community at large. When a new political question comes before our courts, its importance is too often obscured by a cloud of technicalities, and fails of appreciation by judges who are keen enough at untying knots in the law of commercial transactions or real estate. The California case of *Eaton vs. Brown*, 31 Pacific Reporter 250, decided in October last, is therefore a rather unusual instance of help given by the bench to the cause of political reform in a matter of the highest importance. It was there decided, by a unanimous court, that the provision in the California Ballot, Law allowing a "straight" party ticket to be voted by a single cross-mark was unconstitutional and wholly void.

"It is," said the Court, "an attempt to discriminate against classes of voters, and its effect, if allowed to be valid, would be to subject such classes to the alternative of partial disfranchisement, or to the casting of their votes upon more burdensome conditions than others no better entitled under the fundamental law to the free and untrammelled exercise of the right of suffrage. . . . We hold that this provision destroys the just and equal and uniform operation which in an election law, of all others, is demanded, no less by the express terms of our fundamental law than by the genius and spirit of our institutions. It is therefore void and inoperative. There should be no party designations printed at the head of the tickets, because there can be no voting by stamping such designation. Voters can only express their choice by placing a stamp opposite the name of their candidate in the blank space left therefor, except only in the case of Presidential electors, who may, under the law, be voted for in groups by a single impression of the stamp."

What is said above about the spirit of our institutions is not without its meaning. It ought not to be forgotten that the system of marking individual names belongs to the essentially democratic colonies of Australia, where universal suffrage prevails, while the partisan device of marking a straight ticket by a single cross originated under the limited suffrage of monarchical Belgium. Apart from this, though, the soundness of the decision cannot be

questioned, and it is a precedent that could well be followed in Colorado, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Ohio, Washington, and Wisconsin, where the partisan form of ballot is used, as also in Pennsylvania, where it exists in a modified form. New York and New Jersey might be added but that the laws of those States would seem to be beyond judicial cure. To those ballot-reformers who have seen their efforts for the true Australian system marred by partisan legislatures, the possibility of judicial relief is indeed cheering.

CHARLES C. BINNEY.

PHILADELPHIA, January 7, 1893.

A WOMAN ON THE BOARD OF REGENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. George William Curtis, in his inaugural address as Chancellor of the University of the State of New York, counted himself peculiarly fortunate in occupying a chair in the Board of Regents ennobled by a long line of distinguished occupants. "Each of my colleagues," he adds, "traces a kindred ancestry of his chair, and, contemplating the men whom he succeeds, each acknowledges with me that in the truest sense *noblesse oblige*." Mr. Curtis expressed no wish as to the person through whom the line should be preserved, but, in view of the generous encouragement he always gave to the cause of woman's education, is it not fitting that the chair left vacant by his death should be filled by one of that class for which he did so much? For more than a generation women have received college training, and they have come to occupy positions of trust and responsibility in philanthropic work. The majority of the persons engaged in educational work in this State are women, but few openings of a public character have as yet come to them in this work. Would not the cause of education be served by the election to the Board of Regents of a woman well qualified for such a position? A woman occupying the chair once filled by Mr. Curtis would feel in a double sense the responsibility resting on her.—Respectfully, M.

THE HARVARD ANNEX AND THE UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are many erroneous notions concerning the fund that the Woman's Education Association is raising for the endowment of the Harvard Annex, in the hope of its becoming part of the University. It seems, therefore, worth while to answer in a few words two questions which are frequently asked: "Why is the connection of the Annex with the University greatly desired? Why is it necessary to raise money for that object?"

The reasons for desiring that the Annex should be connected with the University are: First, that its existence and all its present courses of study may be permanently insured to its students. As it now stands, the College professors teach the Annex classes during hours not claimed by the University, and should extra college work arise, they may be obliged to interrupt their instruction at the Annex. Second, that the students of the Annex may have freer use of the library and other educational facilities belonging to the University than they now enjoy. Third, that the Annex graduates should receive their degrees from Harvard University, a college degree being of far greater value to them than the Annex certificates they now have.

It will be noticed that, under the above conditions, not only do the students miss important privileges, but the actual existence of the Annex itself depends solely on the good will of the professors and the amount of leisure time at their command.

In answer to the second question, why a fund is necessary in order that the Annex should be thus joined to the College, the reasons are: (1.) As the funds of Harvard College were given for the instruction of young men, the members of the Corporation and Board of Overseers cannot use them for the teaching of young women. The Annex must, therefore, be self-supporting. (2.) In view of the larger number of students likely to follow such a change of standing in the Annex, additions in educational outfit, apparatus, etc., would be necessary and would greatly increase expenses. (3.) That the present income of the Annex is not large enough to pay for the post-graduate courses, which are very expensive, and for which Harvard offers large opportunities. These advanced studies are in frequent demand by women who are anxious to fit themselves for the higher positions which such preparation would enable them to obtain.

There can be, at present, no question of separate or co-education. If, when the Annex is properly endowed, the University accepts the charge of its maintenance, the governing boards will arrange all methods as seems well to them at the time, and will alter them afterwards as may seem to them better. In the thirteen years of its experimental existence, the Annex has met a grave demand of the community with such success as its small means and existing conditions rendered possible. It is hoped that the public will recognize the necessity of making it a permanent institution.

MRS. LOUIS AGASSIZ,
MRS. GEORGE H. PALMER,
KATHARINE P. LORING.

BOSTON, January 3, 1893.

ROMANCE AND PLAGIARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A few days ago I received a circular in which blue-pencil marks directed my attention to an article on "Barbara Freitchie" by a *kinswoman* in the *Californian* for January, 1893. Hoping to gather some additional material for my monograph, I sent for it at once. Imagine my surprise when I discovered, in five magazine pages, two at least transcribed literally from my own article in *Sunday Afternoon* for April, 1878, while scattered throughout the remaining three were sentences of my own into which were interpolated certain tricks of rhetoric for which I should be sorry to be held responsible. That the writer had never seen my monograph is made certain by her perpetuating an error in my article of 1878. I spoke there of Ebert as Caspar Fritchie's executor. Ebert denied this at once, in a wrathful letter, and the correction was made in detail in the monograph. It would have been almost impossible for any "kinswoman" to have made this mistake.

To two or three points in this article I ask space to direct attention. The illustrations are evidently copies of Byerly's, made in 1868. In that which represents Barbara's house, the flag is in the wrong window—where Byerly put it, not knowing the story. There it could not have remained an hour, nor would it have been seen by Jackson's men. Then we have a photograph of "Barbara's flag," asserted by the "kinswoman" to have been her father's *Revo-*

lutionary flag. How comes it that this torn flag has *thirty-four* stars? It must have been made after the admission of Kansas—on July 4, 1861! Barbara owned three flags, but not one of these was more than eighteen inches long.

Three points in the text remain. "Barbara was born in 1760," says the "kinswoman"; "and every drop of ancestral blood in her baby body had been inherited from the founders and preservers of the then youthful Union." Let us be merciful to the rhetoric, but will the author tell us what "youthful Union" existed in 1766? She goes on to claim that "Lady Barbara" "was an aristocrat of the true American type," associating as an equal with Taney, Key, and Scott! Nothing could have grieved the dear old Frau more than this unfounded claim. In her concluding paragraph the author asserts that the bodies of Barbara and Francis Scott Key lie not far apart among "other noble Marylanders," in the cemetery overlooking Frederick. There, indeed, on the grave of Key, I myself traced the paths of contending armies; but Barbara's body rests among those of her own people, in the little graveyard belonging to the Evangelical Reformed Church.

Somewhere there may be some one who loves the author of this strange appropriation; therefore I will give no further publicity to her name. To the falsehood of her statements I am compelled to ask attention.

CAROLINE H. DALL.

1526 18TH ST., WASHINGTON, D. C., Jan. 7, 1893.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly permit the author of a book recently published in New York and London to correct a statement of fact erroneously made in regard to him in a prominent American organ? In a very appreciative notice of my work (*Methods of Industrial Remuneration*) contained in the last number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, Mr. George Gunton says that "Mr. Schloss is a Fabian Socialist, with a strong bias against the wages system, and in favor of some form of socialistic production." But of that well-known band of Socialists, the Fabian Society, I am not, and never have been, a member. Of course, "we are all Socialists nowadays"; but I do not, and never did, profess myself a Socialist. No one (before Mr. Gunton) ever described me as a Socialist. If I have a bias against the wages system, I am not aware of it, my view being that—to quote from the paper which I read before the British Association last August—"if we will devote ourselves to a careful examination of the wage-system, we shall not improbably arrive at the conclusion that what is wanted is, not so much that wages shall be abolished as that wages shall be increased." As for socialistic production, notwithstanding that I have read with attention several economic nightmares purporting to represent production under a socialist system, I have never yet been able to attach any very definite meaning to those "blessed words," socialistic production.

I am yours obediently,

DAVID F. SCHLOSS.

LONDON, December 23, 1892.

CAPT. JOHN SMITH AND NATHANIEL BUTLER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In 1882 the late Gen. Sir John Henry Lefroy edited for the Hakluyt Society a volume

entitled 'The Historie of the Bermudas or Summer Islands,' from MS. 750 of the Sloane collection at the British Museum. In his introductory remarks our lamented colleague discussed the authorship of this MS., and from internal evidence attributed it to Capt. John Smith, the historian of Virginia. Ten years have elapsed since the publication of Lefroy's work, and his conclusions have not, as far as I am aware, been questioned. It was only quite recently that Mr. Edward Scott, keeper of MSS. in the Museum, while cataloguing the Sloane collection, came upon a MS. in the same handwriting as 750, signed by Nathaniel Butler. This MS., numbered 758, is described by Sir F. Madden in his catalogue as follows: "1. Mem^o for 12 heads of Letters written by Capt. Nath. Butler while Governor of the Bermudas [autograph]. 2. A dialogicall discourse of Marine affairs between the High Admirall and a Capitaine att sen, written in six dialogues by Capt N. Butler in 1634, with a table of contents prefixed. 3. A diary of my personall employments from 10 Feb. 1639 to 2 May 1640 by the same Capt. N. Butler [autograph]." A comparison of the two MSS. establishes the fact of the identity of the handwriting, though one is a fair copy, the other a rough draft. Both, however, are written by the same educated hand, and the signature at the end of 758, "Nath Butler," is genuine.

Had Gen. Lefroy seen the Madden catalogue he could not have fallen into the error of attributing the 'History of the Bermudas' to Capt. John Smith, for Madden expressly states that its author was Butler. But at the time Gen. Lefroy edited his book the Madden catalogue, which only went as far as 1,100 of the Sloane MSS., had been suppressed. The Ayscough catalogue, then and still in use, is arranged according to subjects, and our two MSS. fall under separate headings, "Bermuda" and "Butler" occurring in different volumes. Gen. Lefroy, basing his arguments on 750, the only MS. known to him, found several passages in his 'History of the Bermudas' identical with Smith's 'History of Virginia,' book 5, and came to the conclusion that Smith was the author of both works. But Capt. Smith was never at Bermuda, and there is reasonable ground for believing that many of the materials for the Bermuda portion of his work were supplied by Butler. At all events, he is mentioned in the list of authorities quoted by that author under his initials N. B., and as he is known to have visited Virginia in 1623, soon after his governorship of the Bermudas was at an end, he would most probably have met with Smith, who had returned to New England the previous year to lend his assistance in restoring the fortunes of that young colony, then at a low ebb. But even more conclusive proof is afforded by the date, for, according to Gen. Lefroy, Capt. John Smith died in 1631, while the writer of MS. 758, and consequently of 750, was living in 1640.

It may be worth mentioning that this Capt. Nathaniel Butler, who did good service as Governor of Bermuda from 1619 to 1622, and was afterwards (1638-41) Governor of (Old) Providence Island, is one of England's forgotten worthies, being passed over even by the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' He appears, too, to be the individual committed to Newgate in June, 1649, by the Council of State for dispersing treasonable and scandalous books (Calendar of State Papers, Domestic), by no means a singular instance of the way justice was administered in those days.

E. DELMAR MORGAN,
Hon. Sec. Hakluyt Society.

TINTORETTO'S ST. MARK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reference to Mr. Stillman's letter in your last issue, it may be of interest to you to have the assurance that in August of 1889, "The Finding of the Body of St. Mark," by Tintoretto, was in the Brera at Milan, and that it is so striking a picture, in respect to composition and the management of the light, that it is fitted to arrest the attention of any one looking to composition. As to technique I cannot say.

I find on referring to the catalogue, which was then on sale at the Brera, this entry:

"Giacomo Robusti dit le Tintoret.—V. No. 217. 234 bis. L'Enlèvement du corps de St.-Marc des tombeaux d'Alexandrie. Sur toile: haut m. 3, 97; larg. m. 4, 02. Provenant de la Scuola grande de St.-Marc."

Very respectfully yours, E. L. W.

BALTIMORE, January 6, 1893.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS have nearly ready 'Ivan the Viking,' by Paul B. Du Chaillu; 'Adzuma; or, The Japanese Wife,' a play by Sir Edwin Arnold; 'Froebel,' by H. Court-hope Bowen, in the "Great Educators" series; 'The French War and the Revolution,' by Prof. Sloane, in the "American History" series; 'The Campaign of Waterloo,' with an atlas, by John C. Ropes; 'A Manual of Natural Theology,' by Prof. George P. Fisher; and 'Higher Criticism and the Hexateuch,' by Prof. Charles A. Briggs, whose 'Defence before the Presbytery of New York' has just been published by the same firm.

Harper & Bros. will publish 'Elements of Deductive Logic,' by Prof. Noah K. Davis of the University of Virginia, and 'Morocco as It Is,' by Stephen Bonsal, jr.

D. Appleton & Co. issue directly a 'Hand-book of Military Signalling,' by Capt. Albert Gallup.

Dr. Wm. Clarke Robinson's authorized translation of the second volume of the late Prof. ten Brink's 'History of English Literature' is on the point of publication by Henry Holt & Co. The chief interest of this portion of the work centres in Chaucer.

'The Family Life of Heinrich Heine,' translated by Charles de Kay, is in the press of Cassell & Co.

Macmillan & Co. announce 'The Real Thing, and Other Stories,' by Henry James.

Bret Harte's 'Maruja' has been translated into Portuguese. Publication of it began in the *Jornal do Commercio* of Rio de Janeiro on December 11, 1892.

Mr. Henry Matson's 'References for Literary Workers' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) will be a boon to country debating societies. Instead of a bald topical bibliography, he propounds 324 questions, states his own opinion on each, and adds references to the sources of knowledge. He throws in, to boot, 287 questions without either of these accompaniments. Thus we may expend our wits on the problem, "Is Browning a greater poet than Tennyson?" or "Is Edison the greatest living American inventor?" "Was Darwin a greater scientist than Agassiz?" "Is photography of greater importance than engraving?" "Are the so-called trusts . . . a benefit to the public?" "Is the Nebular Hypothesis likely to win an established place in science?" "Is the human will free?" "Does Protection

protect?" etc., etc. It cannot be supposed that any one man's opinion is of value for so wide a range of estimates of relative human rank, or political, religious, and æsthetic controversy. Mr. Matson's service, therefore, consists in his references, which are commendably accurate and useful so far as we can judge.

Prof. Frank Forrest Frederick's 'Architectural Rendering in Sepia' (New York: William T. Comstock) is one of the books that give in print the practical directions which an instructor gives orally to his pupils, without any attempt at added system or completeness. They are such directions as the teacher of brush-drawing usually offers, from the pictorial point of view rather than the architectural. As is apt to be the case, Prof. Frederick recommends his pupils in set terms to study nature and seek after truth; but in practice his advice is to do this or that because it has a good effect or accomplishes a pictorial end. Some mocking spirit must have inspired him to fill the book with his pupils' drawings. It was doubtless encouraging to the boys, but instruction-books are not usually put on the market for this. If there was need for any illustrations, they should have been exemplary. These only show what certain pupils have done, and not at all what a skilful draughtsman would do.

William Wood & Co. send us three excellently published reprints, of British authorship, from their Medical and Surgical Monographs, namely, 'Insomnia and its Therapeutics,' by Dr. A. W. Macfarlane; 'Railway Injuries,' by H. W. Page, F. R. C. S.; and 'Unsoundness of Mind,' by J. W. Hume Williams, Barrister-at-Law. The first is purely medical; the second traverses its field medico-legally as well as clinically; and the third examines its grave subject in the light of both medicine and law. All are well written, are interesting, and are profitable for study. Although beyond our pale for review, we may quote from the last (p. 98) a curious doctrine cited by the author without approval as having weight with an English tribunal. A young gentleman of fortune was sought to be restrained through the courts from wasting his property, on the ground of congenital mental deficiency, incapacitating him from governing himself and his estate. This was opposed in his behalf by alleged friends on, among others, these two principles: one, the doctrine of Lord Hardwicke, that "there may be a weakness of mind that may render a man incapable of governing himself from violence of passion and from vice and extravagance, and yet not sufficiently under the rule of law and the Constitution of this country to direct a commission"; and the other, supposed to be derived from Blackstone, that "prodigality which causes great houses to fall and hereditary estates to pass away, thereby occasioning that frequent circulation of lands and other property which cannot be effected without extravagance somewhere, is perhaps not a little conducive towards keeping our mixed constitution in its due health and vigor." These may be good law, but such law is certainly not a good thing. In this particular instance the victim died a pauper in a low public-house within a year after the verdict that gave him liberty to dissipate his fortune, having within that time squandered every available shilling (£140,000).

Among other medical publications we may mention 'Household Nursing,' by J. O. Tunstall, M.D. (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnam's), a little book with a good motive and diffuse style; and 'Hygienic Measures in relation to Infectious Diseases,' by Dr.

G. H. F. Nuttall (Putnam's), an ambitious effort to describe within a small compass the conditions that limit the spread of communicable maladies. Taking the presumed opportunities of the writer into account, the result is disappointing, whether the essay is intended for physicians or laymen—which, by the by, is not clear. As English the style is not good, and although some of the directions represent the very latest sanitary views, others are imperfect in expression or in fact. A book in its fourth edition has presumptive evidence in its favor: examination of 'Accidents and Emergencies,' by Dr. C. W. Dulles (P. Blakiston & Co.), shows that it is intelligently prepared, well arranged, and copiously indexed, so that it is one of the very best of this class of family helps.

The bulky 23d annual report of the Massachusetts State Board of Health has one paper of exceptionally wide interest, though it deals with disease distribution in that State alone. During the twenty years 1871-90 the deaths from measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria and croup, smallpox, typhoid fever, cholera infantum, consumption and pneumonia are tabulated and discussed, and mapped in colored shading, with the general conclusion that density of population is a more important factor than geographical position, except in the case of consumption and pneumonia—the one diminishing as we proceed from the seacoast, and the other increasing. Mortality from consumption is the most uniform of all—though there was some gain in the latter half of the period—and no town was without a victim, whereas 185 lost no lives from smallpox, 95 none from measles, 15 none from scarlet fever. Typhoid fever and pneumonia were quite as deadly, only one town being exempt in each case. The paper-mills, with their rags (especially the domestic article), seem to increase the liability to smallpox; water supply affects the course of typhoid fever; milk supply, the employment from home of mothers, and the birth-rate are factors in the case of cholera infantum. The late Dr. Bowditch's conclusion about consumption as to geographical conditions and as to infectiousness are apparently confirmed by this investigation of Dr. Samuel W. Abbott.

The fragments of the "Gospel of St. Peter" recovered at Akhmim five years ago by the French Archaeological Mission at Cairo, but only now published, are the subject of a brochure of some seventy pages by Prof. J. Rendel Harris (James Pott & Co.). He gives a translation of the Greek text, shows the evident canonical parallels, and suggests several parallels with extra-canonical writers. He himself makes it clear that he is but a hurried pioneer, and that when the text shall have been more critically established and more carefully studied in connection with sub-apostolic literature, more important results than his own will be reached by other scholars.

The *Canadian Almanac* for 1893 (Toronto: Copp, Clark Co.) reaches its forty-sixth year. The corrected tariff fills 17 pages, the list of post-offices 32, of the clergy 31, of barristers and solicitors 16; and this is but a part of the miscellaneous information in which banks and legislatures and educational institutions, the militia, etc., also figure extensively.

The 130th volume of the *Almanach de Gotha* (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) exhibits the customary evidences of the enterprise and spirit of improvement which mark the conduct of this venerable annual. The battle for space has compelled the discontinuance of the *Chronique* begun in 1793, but now well

to be spared; and Prof. Soetbeer's death has furnished a natural occasion for dispensing also with the "Aperçus" on the precious metals which supplemented an original department of the *Almanach* dating back to 1765. The only fresh census of importance is that of Rumania, which shows a population exceeding 5,000,000. The new King and Queen of Württemberg, the new Grand Duke of Hesse, and the young Khedive are portrayed in the four steel engravings.

Of recent publication in Germany is the sixth volume of Moltke's "Gesammelte Schriften und Denkwürdigkeiten" (Berlin: Mittler), containing the letters written to the lady who was his betrothed from 1841 to 1842 and his wife from 1843 to 1868, as well as several addressed to his brother Fritz, his sister Augusta, and other relatives between 1868 and 1890. The illustrations are a portrait of his wife taken in 1857 and a facsimile of one of his letters to her. The seventh and last volume, which is on the eve of publication, will contain his speeches and an index to the entire work. The admirers of George Elbers's novels will doubtless welcome his autobiography entitled "Die Geschichte meines Lebens vom Kinde bis zum Mann" (Stuttgart: Deutsches Verlags-Anstalt). It is a neat volume of 522 pages and has already passed into a second edition. Another charming autobiography is the late Werner von Siemens's "Lebenserinnerungen," just issued by Julius Springer in Berlin. The eminent German electrician was born at Lenthe in Hanover, December 13, 1816, and died at Berlin December 6, 1892. The opening chapters describe his childhood, and give a delightfully idyllic picture of German country life some seventy years ago. This is followed by an account of his education and experience as a civil and military engineer, his galvanoplastic studies and inventions, and his achievements in the practical applications of electromagnetism to telegraphy, harbor defence, and other purposes. The book is a pleasant record of the joys and sorrows and frequent illusions of the inventor. We may add that the same publisher announces a second edition of Siemens's "Wissenschaftliche und Technische Arbeiten" in two volumes. The first volume contains his scientific treatises and lectures, and the second his technical studies.

The January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* follows close upon the issue of the previous quarter. There is not much to remark in it except the abstracts of wills of the Mather family, and Mr. Waters's "Gleanings," in which Harvard College, its graduates, officers, and benefactors receive exceptional illustration. The will of William Burnet, Governor of New York and New Jersey, proved July 9, 1730, is given, his posterity being perpetuated in the Browne family of Salem. The will of Peter Thacher has also a considerable local (Essex County) interest.

Mr. Alvan G. Clark, the builder of the Lick refractor, sets forth, in the January *North American Review*, the possibilities of great telescopes in the future very encouragingly. He carries most astronomers with him in his opinion that the refractor is, for nearly all purposes of research, vastly superior to the reflector, whose mirror is so liable to distortion even by changes in temperature. While Galileo's first instrument opened a new universe in the sky, it was no more powerful and far less perfect than the ordinary opera-glass of to-day. Again and again since then has the world supposed that the limit in size and power had been reached—in 1825, with the Dorpat refrac-

tor of nine and one-half inches, again in 1862 with the eighteen-and-one-half-inch telescope made by Mr. Clark for Chicago; still again with the twenty-six-inch lenses for Washington; and finally, with the great thirty-six-inch glasses of the Lick Observatory. But Mr. Clark has now in his workshops a pair of remarkably fine discs of forty-two inches diameter, which he is soon to begin for the University of Chicago; and with the modern perfection in the mere glass-maker's art, and with competent opticians ready to undertake the figuring and polishing of discs of any available dimension, it seems rash indeed to set a limit to the size and capacity of the monster telescopes of the future.

A happy combination of scientific enterprise on the part of Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch, in maintaining the Blue Hill (Mass.) Meteorological Observatory, of the true spirit of thorough investigation on the part of Mr. H. H. Clayton in his study of clouds, and of opportunity for elaborate publication afforded by Prof. E. C. Pickering in the *Annals of the Harvard College Observatory*, has produced one of the best meteorological monographs that have yet been accomplished in this country. The volume is entitled "Measurements of Cloud Heights and Velocities," forming volume xxx., part 3, of the *Observatory Annals*. Mr. S. P. Fergusson was associated with Mr. Clayton in the work of observations. From among many results, we select the mean height of cirrus clouds for midsummer, 10,106 metres; for midwinter, 7,609; and the corresponding velocities, 25.6 and 33.4 metres per second. The increased velocity in spite of a lower altitude in winter emphasizes the changes in the activity of the circumpolar winds with the seasons.

The *New Education* is the title of a forthcoming magazine in the interest of the kindergarten, edited by Mr. and Mrs. W. N. Hailmann, and published in this city by Simpson & Co., at No. 841 Broadway. President Schurman's new *School Review* makes a prompt appearance, with an apology for existence by reason of the demise of the *Syracuse Academy* and of *School and College*. Like them, it will have the studies of the high school and academy for its province. Prof. J. M. Hart's article on "Regents' Diplomas and School Certificates in English" is in line with recent agitation of the subject of teaching English in preparatory schools. The *Review* is published by Cornell University.

The Harvard College Catalogue for the current academical year contains few noticeable changes. The careful reader of such a catalogue finds indications of its quality in the enumeration of the varied courses of study, of the departmental collections and libraries; of the evening lectures open to the public, and of the titles of papers read at the various studious societies. The more hurried glance is naturally given to numbers, and measures a college by its quantitative value. Last year there were 2,658 students in Harvard University, with 351 additional names in the summer schools. This year there are 2,906, with just 500 additional names in the summer schools. One thousand nine hundred and eighty-five students are now under the Faculty of Arts and Sciences; that is, 1,598 in the College, 181 in the Scientific School, a gain of 60 per cent. over last year, and 206 in the Graduate School. The only falling off is among the special students of the College, who are reduced from 169 to 149; and the failure of the total number of students and of the number under the Faculty of Arts and Sciences to reach even thousands results from this unlooked-for change.

—Mr. Charles Francis Adams returns to his attack on the preparation for college in English in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for January; and as the same number reprints his report on the subject to the Board of Overseers (minus the justificatory documents, his blows have their full force. He now takes up the examination books of boys of nineteen from twelve fitting-schools of acknowledged eminence, as examples of translation into English from "advanced" Latin or Greek. Of these some are printed verbatim, some in facsimile, and all are vouched for as fair average specimens of the papers handed in at Harvard last June. They would be melancholy reading if they were not so amusing, for in faulty and incoherent rendering and slovenly and nonsensical English they could hardly be surpassed. Mr. Adams asks if the entrance examinations are not "an omnipresent incubus on all correct preparatory instruction," and many will be found to agree with him in thinking that they are. He also asks if they might not be abandoned in favor of admission on probation by certificate—examining the schools, in other words, instead of their graduates. He does not intimate that this practice already prevails very extensively in the college world, side by side with entrance examinations. The University of Michigan, for instance, could at once illuminate the subject by a report similar in its method to Mr. Adams's, comparing the relative proficiency in English and in classical translation by the two sets of accepted students at an early period in the freshman year. Perhaps instructors at that institution might even now be found prepared to generalize about it from experience. Prof. Goodwin supplements Mr. Adams's remarks with some of his own on "the root of the evil," which are undeniably weighty. He shows that if candidates should be excluded on account of their defective English, they ought to suffer the same penalty for the atrocious mangling of their Latin and Greek as exhibited by Mr. Adams, and for their corresponding shortcomings in other branches. His remedy is, under present circumstances, to refuse the bachelor's degree to "any one who has not shown that he can write English either at the time of his admission or at some subsequent examination."

—This second number of the *Graduates' Magazine* is a distinct improvement on the first, though constructed on the same well-devised lines. Prof. Tucker's Phi Beta Kappa oration is replaced by Mr. Winsor's Columbus Day address on "America Prefigured"; and Mr. Roosevelt's "Harvard Men in Politics," by Mr. C. P. Ware's "Harvard Men in the Public Service," in which it is certainly noteworthy that the College has furnished but fifteen members of the Cabinet since the foundation of the Government. President Thwing of Adelbert College treats of Harvard and Yale in the West in a way to show that the elder college (except as the parent of the younger) is not responsible for the development hitherto of Western ideals, though her share is increasing. His explanation of the preference of Harvard graduates for the East, and of Western preference for Yale, has an historic basis, and perhaps Harvard's device of holding local examinations all over the continent has been most efficient in overcoming prejudices against her growing out of orthodoxy in religion and intense social democratic feeling. A new professor, H. Münsterberg, lately of Freiburg, Baden, has a very lively paper on "The New Psychology," which he teaches in the best psychological laboratory in the world, as he

avers. In the news department we observe that it is now both possible and customary for an undergraduate to finish in three years and to enter at once upon a graduate course, though his A.B. is withheld till the end of the fourth year. The Democratic college club of the late campaign set a good example of disbanding when its work was accomplished. The Republican club preferred to linger and to form part of an American league of college clubs. The record of marriages of graduates is a new feature in the magazine.

—Examination of the balance-sheet headed "Dr. Lewis & Clark's Travels in ac. currt. with the Estate of Bradford & Inskeep, Cr." shows some items which may be worth putting on public record for bibliographical or other purposes. (1.) The credit side, entirely from sales of the book. The net price, retail, was \$3 a volume, \$6 the set. Discounts to the trade varied, being usually 50 per cent. The first sale is entered of date February 20, 1814, which is to be assumed as the actual date of publication. Sales are entered at various dates to December 15, 1814. The total proceeds of sales credited amount to the handsome sum of \$5,535.47. (2.) Debit side, being expenses of manufacture of the book, etc. The items were, in cash payments:

Mar. 29, 1813, S. Lewis for altering plates.....	\$20 50
Aug. 18, Wm. Kneass, for engraving.....	75 00
Sept. 29, Mrs. Garrett, for folding.....	48 50
Jan. 28, 1814, Henry Charles, for copperplate printing.....	77 50
March 5, Samuel Harrison, for engraving large plate, l. e., the map.....	325 04
April 27, for folding.....	55 40
April 29, 1 cop. overcharged West & Blake.....	4 80
May 29, addit. discount allowed Cramer & Co.....	23 33
June 8, O. C. Greenleaf, for 7 ceps. del., etc.....	28 00
June 8, printing 2,000 ceps., circulars, etc.....	1,145 30
June 8, 301 reams printing paper, at 5.00.....	1,505 00
June 8, 3 reams copperplate do., 16.00.....	48 00
June 8, 4 reams large india do., 25.00.....	100 00
June 8, boxes, advertising, etc.....	40 00

\$3,496 97

At this state of the account there is a good margin of profit. But this is almost entirely offset, thus:

To amt. of unpaid bills:	
Gaskill, for binding.....	\$387 95
Desilver, for do.....	220 82
Charles, for copperplate printing.....	77 50

\$686 27

To bad debts and copies not paid for:	
26 copies to S. Pleasants, deceased.....	\$105 00
125 copies to sundry booksellers who failed.....	592 55

\$697 55

129 other ceps. not paid for.....	520 58
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\$1,884 40

Adding \$1,884.40 to \$3,496.97, the total on the debit side of the ledger is \$5,381.37, as against a credit of \$5,535.47, reducing profits to \$154.10. Then one Paul Allen had a claim of \$500, or such part thereof as he had not taken out in trade with Bradford & Inskeep, which much more than wiped out any profit from the book.

—Another memorandum on this sheet is of special interest, as it accounts to some extent for the number of defective copies of the 'Travels,' which, as is well known to bibliographers, are extant. When this balance-sheet was drawn up, there were 392 copies wanting plates (probably the plates were held for non-payment of bills); and 35 copies otherwise defective—total, 427 defective copies. Besides which there were 156 copies missing, "supposed to be destroyed in binder's or printer's hands, or never received from printer." Deducting 583 copies, defective or missing, from the ostensible edition of 2,000, it appears that but 1,417 perfect copies of 'Lewis and Clark' were ever in existence; and of these the number which in the course of years have been destroyed, or have lost some of their plates (especially the large map), is so great that a perfect copy is now a rarity.

—Opportunately upon the publication of Mr. Malcolm Bell's 'Work of Burne-Jones,' lately

noticed at length in these columns, follows the opening, in the first days of the new year, of an exhibition of the master's works in London, in the New Gallery. The promoters of this exhibition have been fortunate enough to obtain from their respective owners all the artist's important productions, with the exception of the still unfinished "Perseus" series and the "Briar Rose" series, which have already been let into the panels of the room that their owner, Mr. A. Henderson, has built for their adequate housing. The catalogue of the paintings will include many of those hitherto known to the lovers of Mr. Burne-Jones's art only through the admirable platinotype reproductions of his friend and photographer, Mr. Frederick Hollyer of Pembroke Square. Among the paintings may be named "The Golden Stairs," "The Days of Creation," "The Wheel of Fortune," "The Annunciation," "The Garden of Pan," "Merlin and Nimue," "Venus's Mirror," and "King Cophetua." Those who have had the pleasure of seeing upon the staircase and other walls of "The Grange," Mr. Burne-Jones's home in Kensington, a number of his beautiful studies, in colored and black crayon, will realize what a pleasure is in store for the London picture-seer in the collection of his earlier drawings and designs, now to be shown for the first time, separately from the paintings, in a second room of the Regent Street Gallery.

—The sixth number of the "Bibliothèque de Carabas" (London: D. Nutt) contains a metrical translation of the "Attis" of Catullus, with dissertations on the myth, on the origin of tree-worship, and on the galliambic verse: the whole by Mr. Grant Allen. The translation is full of spirit, and, while not over-close to the original, will yet give the English reader a fair idea of the wild and passionate poem. It was certainly a labor of love with Mr. Allen, for in his opinion "the 'Attis' is the greatest poem in the Latin language," and two of its verses afford "perhaps the very finest example of the adaptation of sound to sense to be found in the whole range of poetry, ancient or modern." Truly, said Sancho, "it is good to live and learn." The dissertation on the myth contains nothing new; of Mr. Allen's treatment of the metre it will probably be enough to say that he calls it iambic-anapaestic, thus returning to the old notion which admitted interchange of unequal measures into the same verse *ad libitum*. A glance into the 'Metrik' of either Gleditsch or W. Christ might have relieved all his doubts about the traditional view of the verse. The most important part of the book, however, is the excursus on the origin of tree-worship; and whether readers adopt Mr. Allen's conclusions or not, all must agree that he has propounded a most interesting theory, and stated it in a manner forcible and stimulating to thought. It is this, that all tree-worship originated in ancestor-worship or ghost-worship; that while all gods were originally ghosts, all sacred trees and tree-gods became sacred because they grew in the first place on the barrow of the deified ancestor. His theory thus forms a link between Herbert Spencer's ghost theory and Mr. Frazer's view, as recently set forth in that remarkable book, the 'Golden Bough.' But while Mr. Frazer holds that the human god was envisaged in the tree or corn, or assumed the shape of a human being representing the tree or corn-spirit, Mr. Allen contends that the corn or other crop is itself regarded as the embodiment or ghost of the divine personage. Hence "it is not Attis that makes the pine-

tree; it is the pine-tree that makes the story of Attis"; and so from this particular spirit to all spirits. Mr. Allen supports his view with a wealth of argument and of folk-lore tales from all over the world. We shall leave the pretty quarrel to the specialists, some of whom will doubtless point out to Mr. Allen the danger of generalizing from a single formula.

—At the session of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres on December 2, M. Foucart read an interesting note on the Roman emperors who were initiated into the Eleusinian mysteries. The wide repute of these mysteries in ancient times, and the hope of a future life which they offered, rendered them at an early day attractive to the Romans, whose national religion afforded no such solace. Sulla, Antony, Cicero and his friend Atticus were initiates. Augustus became one in the year 21. The Emperor Claudius attempted to transfer the mysteries to Rome, but did not succeed. Nero did not dare to enter the sanctuary of Demeter, which was interdicted to parricides. In the second century a comparison of inscriptions and authors shows that almost all the emperors were initiates, and fixes the dates of their reception. Hadrian presented himself first in the year 125. Four years later he was admitted to the Epopteia, the highest degree of initiation, and remained at Eleusis until the time of his setting out for Asia Minor. As to his successor, there is up to the present time no evidence. Lucius Verus, the colleague of Marcus Aurelius, was received in 167; Marcus Aurelius himself and his son Commodus in 176, in fulfilment of a vow made by the Emperor during his campaign against the Quadi. In the third century the emperors of Syrian origin inclined by a natural preference towards the Eastern religions.

—At the same session of the Académie, M. d'Arbois de Jubainville offered some observations on the name of the first of the gods of Gaul mentioned by Lucan, Teutates. Lucan makes this name to consist of three long syllables. That, M. d'Arbois says, is a barbarism; the word in Gaulish is Teutatis, with a short *i*. The form Teutates was made in imitation of certain Greek nominatives, like *πρωτότης*. This is by no means the only Gaulish word to which Latin writers have given a declension borrowed from the Greek. For instance: the Gauls had an accusative in *as*, the *a* being long; but, inasmuch as the quantity was not indicated in writing, it was taken for a Greek accusative in *as*, with a short *a*, and Lucan thought himself free to write:

"Pugnaces pictis cohlebant Lingonās armis."

As soon as this first step was made, the Greek declension was easily stretched to cover the singular as well as the plural, and Gaulish masculine nouns were given an accusative singular in *a* short. Thus, Juvenal wrote:

"Rufum qui toties Ciceronem Allobroga dixit."

In Gaulish the word would be not "Allobroga," but "Allobrogen," or "Allobrogin." The form "Teutates," for "Teutatis," is only another example of this grammatical syncretism.

WASHINGTON ALLSTON.

The Life and Letters of Washington Allston. By Jared B. Flagg, N.A., S. T.D. With Reproductions from Allston's Pictures. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

To the painters of to-day Washington Allston seems very remote and his reputation very dim and somewhat incomprehensible. "America's

greatest painter," as he used to be thought, and as Mr. Flagg calls him, is little more than a name to most of them. His most important pictures are widely scattered and seldom seen. In the Boston Museum of the Fine Arts hangs, on one of the stairways, the wreck of the "Belshazzar," and the "Allston Room" there contains a number of sketches and unfinished canvases, the debris of his studio collected after his death, which he himself would never have shown. But were his best work more accessible, it is doubtful if it would strongly appeal to us for whom the successive waves of Romanticism, Realism, and Impressionism have swept away old landmarks and rendered old ideals and old methods unrecognizable and unintelligible. The aims of "an historical painter" are as foreign to us as is the artistic "cuisine" of those days, with its "dead coloring" and "impasto" and "glazing"; and even our race affinity seems to have changed. What there was of American art was then provincial English; the best of American art to-day is modified French. Stuart, Copley, Trumbull, Sully were practically English painters; West was President of the Royal Academy, and Leslie is one of the glories of that institution; Allston himself was an A.R.A., and his best work was done and remains in England. Mr. Flagg believes that he would have risen to the successorship of West if he had remained in that country.

It was, of course, principally the influence of blood, language, and tradition that drew American painters to study their art in England, but it is difficult to see where they could have gone to better advantage. In 1801, when, at the age of twenty-two, Allston definitively adopted art as his profession and sailed for Europe, the English school, though sadly fallen off since the days of Reynolds and Gainsborough, was still the best, if not the only, school of painting existing. Even Prudhon, one of the greatest of the moderns, was hardly a painter in the English sense, and the School of David, which dominated the Continent, was purely a school of form and not of painting at all. In Allston's time Lawrence was carrying on the tradition of English portrait-painting with great brilliancy, if with less soundness than his predecessors; Turner was in his glory; and Constable was producing the work which, with Bonington's, was destined to aid so greatly, whether or no it originated, the revolution in French landscape art. It was not so much by these men, however, that Allston was influenced as by West and Fuseli, whom he vastly admired and whose work he thought sublime. His ambition and his poetical and literary temperament inclined him to attack the problem of "historical painting," and his stay in Rome, where, like all good Englishmen, he went to study the old masters, strengthened his tendency in this direction. He learned a sound style of painting in England, after the manner of that day, but followed Sir Joshua's precepts rather than his example. His intense appreciation of Italian art led him to attempt the "grand style," while his large catholicity engaged him in a belated eclecticism.

Mr. Flagg praises him as "the last great exemplar of the art of the sixteenth century," and says: "He manifested in his work the spirit and power of the great Italian masters. He copied none, but mingled indications of Titian and Veronese in color, Michael Angelo in form, and Raphael in graceful delineation of the affections." Whatever one may think of this as a judgment of his achievement, it is a very good statement of his aims, and it is significantly like the programme that Haydon might have

laid out for himself. In England he produced in rapid succession nearly all of his most important works—"The Angel Releasing St. Peter," "The Dead Man Revived," "Uriel in the Sun," "Elijah in the Desert," "Jacob's Dream." They were much admired and highly praised, received many prizes, and were sold at his own price. His high character, winning person, cultivated mind, and fine manners contributed no less than his work to bring him hosts of friends. He was intimate with Coleridge and Washington Irving, both of whom he had met in Rome, and was thought one of the most promising artists in England. He was on the eve of his election to the Royal Academy when he determined to return to America, bringing with him the great "Belshazzar," then practically finished. This was in 1818, when he was not yet forty years old.

At that time his career practically ended. He lived for twenty-five years longer and painted all that time, but added only one or two to the list of his notable works. The "Belshazzar," which was the tragedy of his life and with which his mind was constantly occupied, he left at his death far more unfinished than when he brought it to this country. Exactly what were the causes of this sterility of his later years it is somewhat difficult to understand. Pecuniary difficulties undoubtedly played their part; illustrating, teaching, and the thousand and one shifts of the artist of to-day whose more serious work fails to support him, were then unavailable, and Allston had to rely upon his brush alone. He was, however, liberally patronized, and again and again refused commissions that would have raised him above debt, in order to devote himself to the "Belshazzar," which he considered himself bound in honor to finish (it was to be bought by subscription and part of the money had been paid), but which was constantly retrograding rather than advancing. He said that debt "paralyzed his hand," and he could not paint merely because he had to; yet he lived well, and always had "sherry wine" on his table, and was certainly a hundred times better off than Millet, whose poverty did not prevent his doing the best there was in him. He was greatly hurt at the charge of indolence, and maintained that he was always working and could not live without his work. He seems to have painted every day, though only two or three hours a day. The rest of the time was spent in mental work—or in dreaming.

The fact seems to be that, away from the stimulating competition of other artists and the influence of other works constantly producing about him, he became morbid and self-centred, and relapsed, not into the indolence that does nothing, but into the indolence that does nothing to any purpose, and undoes as much as it does. He dreamed dreams of impossible perfection, and revelled in mind-made masterpieces which never got on to canvas. With him, if ever, the better was the enemy of the good. His friend Leslie wrote him, in 1830: "I believe I have lost at least half my life in making alterations in my pictures, most of which were perhaps mere changes and additions without being improvements"; and, referring to the "Belshazzar," "I have no doubt you have painted twenty-five pictures on the canvas of that one. What a pity they could not be separated. I dare say you might finish it as well in three days as in three years if you would have the resolution." In a word, isolation, always dangerous to an artist, had reduced Allston to the state of mind so well described in Balzac's "Chef-d'œuvre Inconnu," and one symptom of it was the same horror of

having any one see his great work before its completion that was shown by Balzac's hero. It was only when, by a rare chance, he seized an inspiration in its newness and carried the work through before the spirit of doubt and delay had time to affect him (as in the case of the "Jeremiah," which was begun and finished in a few months in 1830 in Cambridge, while an epidemic kept him out of his painting-room in Boston), that he produced anything comparable to his large early pictures.

During these years at Cambridge, and afterwards at Cambridgeport, he lived a quiet and very retired life, but much honored by all and almost revered by his friends. The beauty and dignity of his character and person, and his intellect and culture, made a deep impression on those who knew him, and inclined them to believe him a great genius as well as a good man. Personal admiration tinges the eulogies of him written at his death, and his personal qualities have probably largely aided in forming for him a great reputation. Just what is the real value of his work as art it is hard to judge, so much of it is practically inaccessible. Of his coloring we can hardly speak with authority, but the plates given in Mr. Flagg's volume allow of a fair judgment of his qualities of draughtsmanship and composition, and of his general attitude as an artist. His drawing is fairly good in the academic sense, but is very conventional and mannered. He seems to have worked little from life, and, as might have been expected, his mannerism increased with his age. Sometimes his proportions are bad, as in the "Uriel," where the legs are much too small for the colossal head and shoulders. His outline drawings, which have been much admired, are round and unaccented, and show little sense of structure. His composition often seems mechanical rather than organic. The "Dead Man Revived" seems pieced together, and has no unity of arrangement. His costumes are in a curious, hybrid, pseudo-classic taste, and his prettily feminine angels, with their hair dressed in the fashion of Lawrence's portraits, are strangely in contrast with the heavy-muscled prophets and apostles after Michael Angelo and Raphael, which have sometimes an undeniable dignity. "Handling" he avowedly despised, and his technical methods were of the elaborate kind common when artists still believed in "the secret of Titian," and the old art of "painting in oils" had not succumbed in the struggle with modern demands.

Back of all special failings, however, is the falseness of aim. The attempt to carry on under other conditions the traditions of the old masters has always been unfruitful. The great "machines," whether of English artists or French, are at their best unsatisfactory performances. The essential fact about the great pictures of the old masters is that they were decorations, designed each for a special place. The decoration and the comparatively small easel picture are the two essentially vital forms of painting; and the great composition which has become too large to be an easel picture, and yet is not a decoration, is nearly always a blunder. The great Salon picture is almost as unsatisfactory as were the ambitious performances of Haydon and Barry, and with these latter Allston must, on the whole, be classed, as one of the failures in art. The effort to revive the art of a past day must, in any event, be doomed to failure, but something of the spirit of the old art may be recovered on the old conditions, and the revived interest in decorative painting in France has already produced a wonderful effect on serious and ideal art. When Ameri-

can artists find a large demand upon them for the decoration of public buildings, we may look for a really great American painter in the sense of Allston's effort. Until then we must expect our best works in portrait, in landscape, and in genre.

Mr. Flagg has discharged his task acceptably, and the publishers have well done their part in preparing this memorial of a man whose name will endure, and who will always retain a certain interest for us as one of the early painters of America.

EVANS'S KASPAR HAUSER.

The Story of Kaspar Hauser. From Authentic Records. By Elizabeth E. Evans. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THE author of this book is an ardent convert to the "Baden theory"—that is, the theory that the mysterious personage known as Kaspar Hauser was the abducted son of the Grand Duke of Baden. Mrs. Evans makes no attempt to conceal her partisanship or to sift or criticize the evidence upon which she relies. Her claim is that the story as she writes it "has always been and is still believed by many thousands of intelligent people in Germany," although "many other people do not accept the statements." She holds that, "properly speaking, there is no evidence upon the other side"—only an "abundance of assertion and abuse"; and she invites any person who is dissatisfied with her view to "form his own decision by examining the sources of information" to which she has resorted.

We should have preferred, for our part, that a new English book on Kaspar Hauser should treat the matter from a critical and judicial rather than a partisan point of view. Mrs. Evans's readers will be persons who either have not at hand the voluminous Hauser literature, or have other work to do than to read it. They will naturally expect the author of a new book on the subject to have done this reading for them, and done it in such a spirit that reliance can be placed on the conclusions reached. But our book is not of that kind. The author includes much that bears the evident stamp of mythology, while every person who had to do with Hauser, or has since written about him, is prejudged, with respect to his character and trustworthiness, from the moment of his first appearance in her pages. The book gives some evidence, too, of hasty execution. The paragraphing is bad, and misprints of German words are numerous.

In spite of these defects, however, Mrs. Evans has produced a book which deserves to be read, and that the more since the theory which she defends has always been too lightly treated in Germany. However suspicious certain circumstances might be, it appeared impossible to establish the facts with certainty; and since the theory tainted the title of the reigning house of Baden and was particularly offensive in that quarter, it soon fell into disfavor. A steadfast few continued to believe it, but the great majority agreed to regard Kaspar Hauser as an insoluble mystery, and to insist that at any rate he could not have been the Crown Prince of Baden. This is the view which finds expression in the ordinary books of reference, both German and English. Meanwhile, the lapse of time has been making it more certain that Kaspar Hauser was the Crown Prince of Baden, and the evidence supporting this view has been well put together by Mrs. Evans. She dedicates her work "To the City of Nürnberg, in

memory of the kindness bestowed upon the foundling Kaspar Hauser."

The pertinent facts of the story can be quickly recapitulated. On May 23, 1828, a boy, seemingly of about sixteen, appeared suddenly in Nürnberg. He was dressed in the coarse clothes of a much older man. His eyes could not bear the light, his gait was that of a child learning to walk, and he often pointed to his feet as if in pain. His body was encrusted with dirt, and he would take no food but black bread. He could give no account of himself—indeed, he could utter only a few half-intelligible words; but, when given pen and paper, he wrote legibly the name Kaspar Hauser. Public interest being aroused, he was made the ward of the city and turned over to a certain Daumer, who commenced teaching him. In a few months the boy was able to write, and prepared a memoir to the effect that as long as he could remember he had lived in a small dark room, with floor of earth and bed of straw. Bread and water had been brought him during his sleep. Shortly before his release a man had come and taught him to write the name Kaspar Hauser, and to say the few words he had known when he appeared in Nürnberg. October 17, 1829, he was found lying in Daumer's cellar, bleeding from a wound in the head, which he said had been inflicted by a "black man." From this wound he soon recovered, and, after one or two changes of residence, was adopted by an English nobleman, Lord Stanhope, who placed him under guardians at Ansbach. Here, while walking in the public park, December 14, 1833, he received from an unknown assassin (according to his own statement) a dagger-thrust, from which he died three days later.

The strange death of the foundling quickened public interest in him, and he became a European mystery. There were at the time people who regarded him as a vulgar impostor who had committed suicide after imposing on people as long as he could. But this was to ignore a multitude of facts, besides assuming that the people of Nürnberg were abnormally gullible. Since it was evident that no natural conditions of life could have produced, under any conceivable circumstances, those effects upon mind and body which were actually manifested in the foundling, the only recourse left was to the theory of abduction. But this, again, had its difficulties. It was clearly no ordinary case of kidnapping or concealing inconvenient offspring, since the perpetrators of such a crime would have had no imaginable motive for practising such revolting cruelty upon the child himself. It would have suited their purpose just as well or better, one would suppose, to put an end to the child's life at once, or else to let him grow up naturally in ignorance of his origin.

The theory that Kaspar Hauser was the abducted Crown Prince of Baden rests historically on two separate foundations: first, a memoir (written in 1833, but not published until 1852) by Feuerbach, President of the Criminal Court in Nürnberg and a lawyer of the highest standing; secondly, a pamphlet by one Seiler, written about 1840. Feuerbach's suspicion is couched in such terms that it has been matter of discussion how far he really believed in it. Seiler gave a full account of the abduction, having got his information in some way while in the service of Major Hennenhofer, who was the agent principally concerned in the crime. According to this story, Kaspar Hauser was the son of Margrave Karl, and the direct heir to the throne on the old Zähringen line. When about two weeks old, namely, on October 12, 1812, he was taken from the palace at

Karlsruhe by the Countess Hochberg, themorganatic wife of the reigning Grand Duke, who wished to secure the succession to her own children. It was alleged that the Countess took the young prince from his cradle while his drugged nurses were asleep, and left in his place the illegitimate offspring of a peasant-girl, the substituted child having been first poisoned to insure its speedy death; that then the young prince was placed by Hennenhofer, at first in the charge of a nurse in a neighboring castle, and then, later, removed to Falkenhaus, near Ansbach in Bavaria, and there kept in close confinement until he emerged into the world as Kaspar Hauser in 1828.

In itself considered, this story rested on no very solid foundation. The author was an irresponsible adventurer, and the story read in parts like mere romantic fiction. But for this very reason it was all the more suspicious that the Baden Government showed such eagerness to suppress the story, to prevent the investigation of it, and, later, to get hold of Hennenhofer's memoirs and correspondence on his death, in 1850. Very singular, too, in view of the details of the abduction story, which, it must be admitted, fitted marvellously with the known facts about Kaspar Hauser, was the publication, in 1875, of the official court records relating to the baptism, death, and post-mortem examination of the young prince alleged to have been abducted in 1812. This publication was treated at the time as a final and definitive refutation of the Baden theory, and is so treated still in books of reference such as Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon' and the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' How worthless this refutation was appears when we consider the fact that the Seiler story had provided from the first for the death in the palace of an infant supposed to be the Crown Prince. How any record of baptism, death, and autopsy could prove the identity of this babe with the one born to the Duchess Stephanie a few days before is not apparent.

The Hauser literature which Mrs. Evans reviews is extensive, but it consists until very lately of acrimonious controversy, with very little in the way of new facts. But in March, 1892, a pamphlet of a remarkable character appeared in Zurich. It was written by Baron Alexander von Artin, and bore the title 'Kaspar Hauser: The Solution of the Riddle.' If the documents are genuine—their authenticity has not been unchallenged—the pamphlet is properly named. It contains, in the first place, an autograph note in facsimile, written June 5, 1828, by the Grand Duke Ludwig (the uncle of the Karl whose son had been abducted, the putative father of the Countess Hochberg's children, and the man who had profited by the abduction). The note is addressed "To my Government," and begins: "In Nürnberg last month everything gone wrong. Take measures that the peace of my Grand Duchy be not disturbed by this event." Von Artin's pamphlet also contains a death-bed statement by Von Berstett, who was Minister of Baden in 1828 and received the note just referred to. Von Berstett's statement is addressed to a Prince who is not named, and contains these words:

"It was not until after Ludwig's accession [in 1818] that I gradually discovered what I would rather never have known. The letter which I give into your charge was received by me just after midnight, June 5, 1828. I immediately sent in my resignation, but it was not accepted. The official reports concerning the Prince in Nürnberg were of such a nature as made it evident that he could never be put in possession of his rights. He was described as a person crippled and ruined in mind and body. Therefore, considering the welfare of a State

as of more importance than the interests of a dynasty, I held my peace. . . . Maj. Hennhofer, whom I may well call my evil genius, knows more about this matter than I do."

Unless we have to do here with a forgery of documents (of which the present writer has no evidence), the mystery of Kaspar Hauser may indeed be regarded as cleared up.

The Foundations of Rhetoric. By A. S. Hill. Harper & Bros. 1892.

PROF. HILL'S 'Principles of Rhetoric' has been for so many years the accepted text-book in sophomore (or freshman) English at Harvard that it holds a unique place in the memories of thousands of students. Other books on the same subject may have existed, but to the largest body of young college graduates in the country "rhetoric" means only this one familiar volume. The 'Principles' well deserved a success that left it for some years without even a serious rival in the field. Dogmatic in the extreme, it summed up the precepts of Quintilian and the long line of his English successors and compeers in a series of dicta that were almost never lacking in complete clearness and definiteness. The reader might rebel against its absolute condemnation of words or constructions sanctioned by what seemed sufficient colloquial or written usage, but the careful student could never refuse his respect—even if not his allegiance—to principles inspired by such high ideals and developed with such scrupulous care and consistency. Prof. Hill's second volume well deserves a no less careful and respectful attention: first, because it must embody the experience during the last fifteen years of one under whose charge have been carried on various important experiments, on the largest scale yet possible in America, in teaching young men how to write; second, because as a text-book for younger students it shows distinctly what is or may be required of a boy just entering college.

The subject-matter and tone of the book remind one frequently of Cobbett's famous letters to his son on grammar and rhetoric. The tone is that of the master addressing the child, courteous but firm; the subject-matter, the simple and sensible directions that a father who superintended his son's writing might give him, at fifteen, either in logical order or as occasion offered. Swift's definition of style is the best—Proper words in proper places. The principles which lead one (1) to choose the proper word, and (2) to put it in its proper place—these, with brevity, are the "foundations of rhetoric." The introduction deals with the terms and main facts of English grammar. Then follow in succession chapters on improper words (132 pages); on the principles of choice among proper words (26 pages); on improper sentences (74 pages); on the principles of choice among various kinds of sentences (17 pages); and on paragraphs (8 pages). An excellent index completes the volume. Half the book, on a rough estimate, is composed of carefully chosen examples; indeed, the method is professedly inductive. The style is clear and scrupulously correct, and encourages logical thought very much as a good text-book in geometry does, and nowhere offers an impediment to it.

'The Foundations of Rhetoric' bears a close resemblance to the first part of the 'Principles.' It is, however, even a better book in almost every way. The very satisfactory method of leading the pupil on from the study of separate words to that of words combined into a sentence, and then to that of sentences com-

bined into a paragraph—recently developed in this country, on a hint from Minto, by the late Prof. McElroy, and especially by Prof. Hill's colleague, Mr. Wendell—has evidently modified the author's method to a considerable extent. The dogma, too, is not so unbending as in the former book. Certain alleged solecisms are discussed as if there were two sides to the question, even though the victory is always assured to the side of the ideal conservative usage. In spite, however, of the rearrangement of matter and the slight change in tone, the attitude of the author remains the same. "Words are, or are not, words for the purposes of English composition, according as they are, or are not, in present, national, and reputable use" (p. 27). A boy must not, therefore, use so common a verb as "to focus" (p. 28), because it is not in national use. He must not write, "The river tumbles over the cliffs in a series (for succession) of splendid cataracts" (p. 32), nor, "I cannot believe his statement (for assertion) that he is ignorant of the subject" (*ibid.*); nor, "The magazine was a success from the start" (*ibid.*), instead of "The magazine was successful from the start." He must "avoid nouns that are not in good use." Among such are "cablegram" (p. 37) and "editorial" (p. 59); the latter word "is so common now in America and so convenient—'leader' being rarely used here—that there is danger of its establishing itself in the language." Such fine distinctions, such prohibitions of words in current (and, in some cases, reputable) colloquial and written use must, one would think, not only repel the young student's confidence, but perhaps make him mistrust the authority of principles administered so rigidly.

This negative part of the book, the extent of which is indicated by the relative proportions of the chapters as stated above, the teacher will find at once satisfactory and disheartening—satisfactory, because it is the best statement yet made of the numberless pitfalls into which a boy may or must tumble as soon as he takes pen in hand; disheartening, because the teacher who understands boys must know that this is not the way to teach them to write. No other art besides rhetoric, whether simple or complex in nature, begins by telling the pupil what *not* to do. That is not the way a boy learns to shoot, or fish, or swim, or play the violin; if he learns to write at all, that which has helped him most will be not the system of rhetoric that spends its strength on decalogues of thou-shalt-nots, but that which, from the very first to the very last, has kept him at the act and practice of writing. Such guidance a good teacher may supply, but it is only the good teacher who will know how to supply it unaided by a text-book that shall direct the pupil's choice of subjects, suggest or provide for him various materials, and show him how the principles of rhetoric apply with equal force to an abstract in history, a translation from an ancient or a modern language, or the contents of his note-book in physics or chemistry.

The functions of a general guide in matters of composition for younger students, however, Prof. Hill did not intend his book to fill. This is at once the strength and the weakness of 'The Foundations of Rhetoric.' By confining himself to conventional ground, the author has given his work a definiteness of purpose and treatment almost perfect in its way, and which could not easily have been secured in a work largely experimental in character. But has he not lost an opportunity? Boys must be led, not driven. They more frequently use too few words than too many. What

they need is a book which does not smack of the purist, and which by theory and by example shall train them in handling all kinds of topics that come naturally to a boy's hand, and in expressing themselves adequately on each.

Lyrics and Ballads of Heine and Other German Poets. Translated by Frances Hellman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

THIS handsome little volume of 250 pages contains many translations of extraordinary merit. The larger part of the book is filled with selections from Heine. To translate Heine's songs from the German into any other language is almost as difficult a task as it would be to translate melody into words. The apparently artless simplicity, the natural flow, the exquisite tenderness of language in Heine's lyrics, his quaint and delicate humor—delicate even in its audacity—defy the art of the translator to such a degree that absolute perfection seems impossible. But most of Mrs. Frances Hellman's renderings approach the original more nearly than any others that we have seen. Among the translations of Heine's poems by Bowring, Leiland, Sir Theodore Martin, Emma Lazarus, Kate Freiligrath, Stretch, Wallis, Thomson, Radford, Macmillan, Garnett, MacDonald, Rogers, and others, we have found but few that equal and none that surpass them. In almost every instance Mrs. Hellman has strictly adhered to the original metre. Her translations are astonishingly literal without being stiff or forced, and the cadence, the swing, the song quality of the originals are preserved in them with surprising fidelity. That they are not all of equal merit is a matter of course, but a good many of them read as if they were poems originally written in English. Such old acquaintances as "Leise zieht durch mein Gemüth," the "Loreley," "Die Rose, die Lilie," "Die Bergstimme," "Es war ein alter König," "Die Botschaft," "Frühlingsfeier," and several other equally popular lyrics, will be greeted with especial pleasure in their exquisite English garb. On the whole, it may be said without exaggeration that the student of German literature will find in this little volume more of the genuine Heine than anywhere else except in the German original.

As examples of fidelity and idiomatic excellence we will transcribe the translation of the "Frühlingsfeier":

"With such sad bliss doth Spring delude!
The blooming maids, the savage flocks,
Onward they storm, with flying locks,
And cries of pain, and bosoms nude—
Adonis! Adonis!"

"The night descends. The torchlight gleams,
As to and fro they scour the wood,
Which echoes to their frenzied mood,
Their cries and laughter, sobs and screams—
Adonis! Adonis!"

"The lovely youth, surpassing fair,
Stretched on the ground lies pale and dead,
His blood dyes all the flowers red,
And sounds of wailing fill the air—
Adonis! Adonis!"

And this of "Die Rose, die Lilie":

"The rose and the lily, the sun and the dove,
I loved them all once with a rapturous love,
I love them no more, I love her alone,
The rarest, the fairest, the dearest, the one:
She herself is the fountain whence all rapture flows,
She's the lily, the dove, the sun, and the rose."

The rest of the book, about 100 pages, is devoted to selections from Goethe, Geibel, Uhland, Freiligrath, Rückert, Mörike, and Chamisso. In translating Goethe's "Wanderer's Nachtlied," Mrs. Hellman undertook an impossible task, as several other translators have experienced before her. But her renderings of "Vanitas Vanitatum" and "Schweizerlied" are masterpieces of the first order. The same may be said of many of her translations from Geibel's lyrics, among which "Wie es geht" is

especially remarkable for its tender pathos, and "Der May ist gekommen" for an exceedingly faithful portrayal of the tone of exultant jubilation in the original. Of Uhland's ballads, three are presented, "Die Snger's Fluch," "Knig Karl's Meerfahrt," and "Klein Roland," and all three translations may justly be called models of their kind. Many readers will perhaps regard the rendering of Freiligrath's

"O lieb so lang du lieben kannst"

as the gem of the collection.

The little volume is got up in the neatest style of the Knickerbocker Press.

Physics. By George F. Barker. Henry Holt & Co.

DR. BARKER'S work deserves the attention of teachers as well as of students. It is not a complete or exhaustive treatise, but simply a text-book sufficient for ordinary use even in universities, and forming an excellent introduction to the most important branches of the general subject. The style is concise but at the same time clear, and the work covers a great deal of ground, serving in some parts as a good book of reference. The arrangement of subjects treated and the names given them make the work specially noteworthy as an exponent of modern views in physics. While these views are not in themselves new, they here form what we believe is essentially a new classification of the subject for purposes of study and instruction, based (to use the author's own words) on the most recent views of energy considered as being ultimately a phenomenon of the ther. At present, says the author, all physical phenomena seem capable of satisfactory discussion under the heads of mass physics, molecular physics, and ther physics.

The introductory part of the work treats of physical relations in general and the laws of motion. Sound is treated as mass vibration, heat as molecular vibration, while under ther physics Lodge's classification is followed with great advantage, and we have chapters on ther vibration, or radiation, ther stress, or electrostatics, ther vortices, or magnetism, and ther flow, or electrokinetics. The gain in this broader treatment of radiation alone is very great. Older physicists must think sadly of the long series of years of groping for truth from the days when theories of the existence of three and even four distinct thers were proposed to explain the phenomena of radiant heat, light, and chemical action, to the clear views which we now have of radiant energy. The subject of energy of ther stress is most fully treated, and the sections of electrostatics, magnetism, and electrokinetics well deserve commendation. In fact, these form special treatises sufficiently full for all but professional electrical engineers. Two sections on the electromagnetic character of radiation conclude the work.

The amount of detail embraced in Dr. Barker's work is greater than in many much more voluminous treatises. In fact, very little of modern physics escapes at least some attention. Thus, we have a magnetic map of the United States compiled from the maps of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey by Mr. Schott, and embracing isogonic, isoclinic, and isodynamic lines with sufficient distinctness. Great attention has been paid to the necessary definitions, which are excellent; small matters like the comparatively new notation for fractions are not neglected. More space should, we think, have been given to the air thermometer as the basis of modern thermometry; and a

page or two to the object and work of the International Committee of Weights and Measures would have been welcomed. But the work deserves hearty praise for its fulness, its thoroughly modern spirit, its clearness, and a certain freshness in the treatment which adds to its real value as well as to its attractiveness.

Sultan to Sultan. Adventures among the Masai and Other Tribes of East Africa. By M. French-Sheldon ("B  b   Bwana"). Boston: Arena Publishing Co. 1892. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. 435.

THE justification for this account of an uneventful trip to Mt. Kilimanjaro is that it is a record of a woman's courage, tact, and kindness of feeling under trying conditions. Mrs. French-Sheldon led a caravan of blacks a thousand miles through East Africa, and lost but one man, who perished through his own disobedience to orders. She had no hostile encounters, but was treated with savage courtesy even by unfriendly natives, and was solicitously cared for at all times by her own followers. We have never read of an African expedition whose leader showed a more sincere interest in the men composing it, or who did so much for their welfare when on the march. Nor do we remember, with the possible exception of Dr. Livingstone's last journey, one in which the ignorant and debased coast porters were so genuinely attached to their "B  b   Bwana," woman master. She does not appear to have had any sufficient reason for her adventurous undertaking, and she adds little or nothing to our knowledge of the regions through which she passed or their inhabitants; but she does give many lively pictures of the life of the caravan and of the native tribes dwelling on the slopes of the great mountain. Many little details, such as would have escaped the notice of a man, or been deemed by him too trivial to record, are given, and enable the reader to form a very vivid idea of these interesting savages. In this she is aided by a profusion of excellent illustrations of the people, their ornaments, armor, and house utensils. Some of those copied from photographs are too indistinct to be of much value. The affliction to which the author refers in her introduction renders inappropriate any criticism of her book as regards its literary character. It is in many respects the unique record of an unusual chapter in the annals of African travel.

Sketches from Eastern History. By Theodore N  ldeke. Translated by Mr. J. S. Black. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan.

IN this volume Prof. N  ldeke appears as a writer of popular essays. To the learned world he is known as a Semitic scholar of unsurpassed excellence; here he shows how accurate learning and good judgment can illumine matters of general interest. Of the nine papers, those on the Semitic Race, Islam, and King Theodore of Abyssinia appeared originally in German periodicals, and that on the Koran forms part of the article "Mohammedanism" in the ninth edition of the 'Encyclop  dia Britannica,' but all four have been considerably revised; those on Islam, the Caliph Mansur, a servile war in the East, Yakub the coppersmith and his dynasty, some Syrian saints, and Barhebraeus were written in 1891. The style is clear and calm, the tone is judicial, and the variety of topics is great enough to attract various classes of readers.

It is pleasant to have a book in which we are told, with the authority of a master, what we may regard as settled or probable on points interesting to us all, but mostly treated in ponderous or inaccessible works. In questions of Arabian and Syrian history and literature there is no better authority than N  ldeke. The field of the Koran he has made peculiarly his own. In the present essay he reviews his former work and somewhat modifies its results; he has now less confidence in critical analysis and dating of the Suras, and is in general disposed to be more conservative. Only he insists that the literary excellence of the Koran has been greatly overrated; while he recognizes its merit, he points out its grave offences against clearness and coherency. The paper on Islam is mainly a history of the outward fortunes of the faith, with the conclusion that, in spite of its political collapse, it shows great vitality in the conquests it is now making in the Indian Archipelago, Central Asia, and Central Africa, and is probably destined to survive a long time.

In the essay on the Semitic Race, N  ldeke reviews the conclusions of Chwolson, who criticizes Renan. Chwolson is a Hebrew, with exaggerated notions of the endowments of his race; Renan had an undisguised contempt for what he regarded as Semitic narrowness. N  ldeke endeavors to weigh the arguments impartially: he credits the Semites with great religious intensity and practical power, but maintains that their religion was tinged with fanaticism, and that they are, in fact, inferior to the Indo-Europeans in richness of religious genius. In this he is unquestionably right, as he is right in denying to the Semites (apart from the Babylonians and Assyrians) science, philosophy, and art. Modern Jews who excel in these lines of thought are products of European civilization. Christianity is only in part (really only in its beginning) a Semitic religion. N  ldeke, however, goes too far when he says (p. 6) that the religion of Ezra, the Pharisees, and the Rabbis cannot be looked on as higher than Islam. Here he forgets the mass of culture that lay behind the religious system of the later Judaism, and separated it, notwithstanding its ritualistic trivialities, by a wide interval from the crudities of Mohammedanism. In fact, the ethical side of any religion is the outcome of a given social milieu, and is to be judged on its own merits, partly by comparing it with the highest standard, partly by making allowance for its deficiencies of training.

N  ldeke's historical pieces are not less interesting than the others. The sketch of King Theodore will for most persons throw a new light on the character and aims of the unfortunate monarch, as the papers on Mansur and Yakub will reveal some of the picturesque features of medi  val Moslem life.

Down in Dixie: Life in a Cavalry Regiment in the War Days, from the Wilderness to Appomattox. By Stanton P. Allen of the First Massachusetts Cavalry. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 8vo, pp. xvi., 497.

MR. ALLEN of the *Troy Times* has given his reminiscences of service as a private cavalry soldier in the civil war. His book smacks of the true spirit of Sheridan's troopers and is an unquestionably truthful picture of the soldier's life. It does not profess to be history, or to have been revised with reference to accuracy of dates. It gives the author's memories of a soldier's life, beginning with his running away

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